

The Literary Digest

A WEEKLY COMPENDIUM OF THE CONTEMPORANEOUS THOUGHT OF THE WORLD.

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TOPICS OF THE DAY.

ANOTHER BOUNDARY DISPUTE THAT MAY CONCERN US.

A DISPUTE between France and Brazil over the boundary of French Guiana has many features similar to those of the Venezuela dispute. If the Monroe doctrine is involved in the one case, many journals think it is inevitably involved in the other, and that we must lay down the law not to England alone but to France as well. The main features of this second dispute are presented in the following extracts:

The Territory in Dispute.—“A large area of northern Brazil, known as Amapa, is claimed by France. Till recently there was no attempt of the French to occupy it. The inhabitants, numbering thousands, were and are Brazilians. General Cabral, a Brazilian and a good fighter, has been administering the affairs of the district. When gold was found there the officials of French Guiana, waiving diplomatic argument, sent soldiers to seize the country. Cabral resisted, and there was fighting last May. Some Brazilians were killed and their property seized. In the end, however, Cabral seems to have got the advantage, and a French naval demonstration is in contemplation, with a view to intimidating the Rio Government. The tract of which France proposes to deprive Brazil lies between the river Oyapock, the southern boundary of French Guiana, and the river Araguay. On the east it is bounded by the Atlantic, upon which it borders for several hundred miles, and it extends south of Dutch Guiana westwardly almost to British Guiana. Its area is estimated at some 155,000 square miles, or about that of all New England. Just as the Venezuelans have never occupied the region on the Cuyuni River, which they now claim, so the French have never occupied the slice of Brazil they now want and have used force to get. The dispute as to title is, however, an old one. It was in progress in 1688, but Portugal got the best of it, and, in the treaty of Utrecht, France renounced the country between the Amazon and the river Vincent-Pincon and surrendered control of the Amazon. But where is the Vincent-Pincon? The Portuguese say it is the Oyapock, which has so long been the recognized French boundary, but the French say it is the Araguay,

which is far to the south. It is the French who have demanded arbitration, which the Brazilians refuse. As France is a European power and Brazil an American republic, Mr. Olney's doctrine will compel us, it would seem, to take Brazil's side and fight France to prevent arbitration at the same time that we are fighting England to compel it.”—*The Sun, Baltimore.*

The History of the French Claims.—“The Portuguese seized the occasion of France's European preoccupations to seize Guiana in 1809, but the colony was restored to France under the treaties of 1815. A joint commission was appointed to study the question of the disputed territory, but it never met. In 1836 France established a military post at Mapa, within this territory, but it was abandoned in 1840, and by a convention concluded in 1841 France acknowledged Brazil as the legitimate heir of the rights or claims of the Portuguese, and the two nations accepted the principle of reciprocal non-action in regard to the territory in dispute.

“The French claim that the Brazilians have not observed this agreement. They point to the settlement, north of the Araguay, of the military colony, Pedro II., and to the annexation in 1860 of the district of Apurema, the richest part of the territory. In 1887 a handful of Frenchmen, despairing of receiving adequate protection from the home government, set up at Conani the republic of Independent Guiana, with a certain Jules Gros for President. This found no recognition from France, but as in 1890-91 a Brazilian expedition seized Mapa, founding there the colony Ferreira-Gomez, and as in 1892 another expedition started across the territory to find new opportunities of colonizing or mining, the French Government was moved to take some action in defense of its claims. The sanguinary encounter of last May between the guerrilla band of the Brazilian Cabral and a company of French soldiers under Captain Lunier was the latest serious episode in this long dispute.

“It will be perceived that so far as there is any analogy between this and the Venezuelan controversy, Brazil takes the place of Great Britain and France of Venezuela. But it is quite possible that what the Brazilian Chamber of Deputies calls 'the rights and liberty of the American nations concentrated in Monroe principles' may in the estimation of Brazil be seriously involved in making any concession of the territory claimed to belong to French Guiana. In ordinary circumstances it would seem to be a dispute in which we need not interpose till either or both of the parties to it ask for our mediation.”—*The Journal of Commerce, New York.*

Representations Brazil May Make.—“This differs from the Venezuela controversy in so far as France is not in actual possession of the disputed territory, but it has this new element of gravity that an armed conflict took place last May between a Brazilian expeditionary force and a body of French soldiers. . . . As the French authorities put the case, the country to which they lay claim derives its importance from its situation near the northern estuary of the Amazon. That consideration is also calculated to give the subject new gravity in the eyes of the Government of the United States, if it takes the representations which Brazil may make in regard to the Amazon as seriously as it has done those of Venezuela in regard to the Orinoco. Last December the Venezuelan Minister of Foreign Affairs closed a communication to the minister resident of the United States as follows: 'The control by England of the entrance to the mouth of our great fluvial artery, and of some of its tributaries, would expose to constant peril the industry and commerce of a large portion of the New World; would, in fact, bring into ridicule the famous and salutary Monroe doctrine, and would establish abusive practises which, in the end, might make illusive for some American countries their own political entity as free and independent states.' Substitute France for England, and the Brazilian Foreign Minister might borrow the sentence without change.”—*The Herald, Boston.*

"RESPECTABLE" CITIZENS AND MUNICIPAL CORRUPTION.

TWO speeches that have been made within the last few days charging a large share of municipal corruption upon the wealthier and more "respectable" classes, have attracted more than passing notice. One was made by Mayor Swift, of Chicago, and the other by Police Commissioner Roosevelt, of New York. Mayor Swift spoke before the Commercial Club, of Chicago, a club of leading business men. In reply to criticisms on his administration made by President Baker, of the Civic Federation, the mayor said:

"The remedy is to send men to the city council who will not pass corrupt ordinances. Who are responsible for the present condition of affairs? Not the common people. Who tempt assessors? Not the small property-owners on the North, South, or West sides. Who knock at the door of the council, asking for illegal franchises? The representative citizens—the high-toned people. Go among the business people and teach them their duty. We are working with 1,300 less men than there was in the city employ the same month last year. Not until you do your duty should you criticize an administration that does its best.

"Change the common council if it does not suit you. This would be good work for Brother Baker and the Civic Federation. Don't attempt too much. Elect seven or eight good business men. Send in Lyman J. Gage from his ward and C. B. Farwell and F. G. Keith and others of that class, and when they have witnessed the scenes which I have seen they will talk about conditions, not theories. Commence at home if you want to uphold the chief executive. Be active. It won't do to go to your clubs or churches and talk about matters. If you love the city and are interested in its progress and future you will elect good men to manage its affairs."

Mr. Roosevelt's address was delivered before a reform mass-meeting in Philadelphia, attended in large numbers, it is said, by representative business men. He narrated how a Congressman, a State Senator, and two assemblymen tried to influence a police court in New York city to let off saloon-keeper Callahan, arrested for knocking down a policeman who tried to make him keep his saloon closed on Sunday according to law. Mr. Roosevelt continued:

"You would be astonished if I should tell you the names of men, standing high in New York city, who came to me for some of the worst people that there were in that [the police] department because it was a department in which money could accomplish most anything: any man who had money, whether he was a law-abiding citizen or criminal, could buy protection and the services of the police if it was necessary for him to have them, and naturally he got efficient services for which he paid, and he was not willing to receive merely the protection that would be meted out to him exactly as to other citizens, rich or poor. He did not want the change which would deprive him of the advantage his money gave him in getting police protection."

These indictments of the "respectable" citizen are confirmed by many journals.

Putting Responsibility Where it Belongs.—"There is no city in the country to which Mayor Swift's words do not apply. Every city has plenty of men who are ready and anxious to play the dilettante in politics and reform municipal government on a plan as broad as their dress-shirt fronts and as immaculate as their lawn neckties. But when the time for action comes they are generally absent. It is one thing to attend a banquet where there is plenty of elbow-room and nothing more untidy than a champagne bottle to be handled, and another thing to attend a caucus where one is pretty sure to have to submit to jostling and be compelled to come in contact with men who do not have time to lounge and drink wine at clubs. There is, in short, plenty of human nature still in existence, and it shows itself nowhere more conspicuously than in politics. And the one lesson Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, of New York city, is teaching reformers is that they can never gain their object without being practical and taking human nature into account.

"Mayor Swift, of Chicago, has shown that he is a reformer of the Roosevelt kind, looking at the situation exactly as it is and putting the responsibility where it belongs. His plain words should awaken the business men of that city to a sense of the folly of shirking political duties and of violating city ordinances and yet expecting a clean municipal government and that city ordinances will be obeyed. And if the citizens of Chicago learn the lesson it may be possible to impress it upon the citizens of other cities and prepare them to aid heartily but practically in the work of reforming the many acknowledged abuses in city government." —*The Press, Philadelphia.*

Partakers of Corruption.—"It is not the slums that make the city vile. It is not the boss alone who makes politics dishonest. It is not the foreign element that makes the fight against vice and crime sometimes seem almost hopeless. It is the stolid resistance of the mass of respectable citizens, who felicitate themselves on their virtue, that always prevents perfection of any reform at the point where the doing away with an evil threatens some vested interest, some perhaps honest but essentially selfish private scheme. Attempt to enforce an excise law and the, highly respectable and benevolent brewer, who would not dream of snatching a loaf from a drunkard's wife or of selling a drink unlawfully, at once becomes the partizan of law-breakers. Try to clear the sidewalks in the wholesale district and note the business men, who groan so under the evils of misgovernment, protest that there is such a thing as carrying reform too far. Drive an investigation of the old police corruption or of the doings of any city department much below the surface, and see the bankers and merchants, who have received favors from public servants, whose business secrets—perhaps entirely proper business secrets—are known to officials, rally quietly but effectively to keep their old friends from being annoyed. Seek to stop the killing of people by reckless motor-men, and the very stockholders whose children may be endangered stand in the way. Start to compel the owners of a franchise to give adequate compensation for their privileges, or in any way restrict their activities for the public good, and a corporation lawyer will arise, eloquently directing attention to the more pressing need of stopping poker games. Let any movement be started for the purification of politics, and the foundation of the power of machines and bosses will be found not in the bribe-takers and petty traders who are always so disgustingly apparent, but in the attorneys, the bankers, the insurance men, the heads of corporations, whose interests may be helped or hurt by legislation. They may know perfectly well that the men they are protecting are corrupt, but nothing can induce them to risk incurring the anger of those who by some chance might still for a time remain in power. So they go on supporting them, paying blackmail to them, and, innocent themselves of desire for plunder, become partakers of corruption." —*The Tribune, New York.*

Mayor Swift's Discovery.—"It is somewhat discouraging to realize that it has been left until New Year's, 1896, and for the mayor of a town—Chicago—which only began last year to make municipal reform hum (like 'culture'), to announce as a discovery in political morals the principle that the receiver is as bad as the thief. The discovery having been made, however, the practical inquiry is, how will the offenders, 'the prominent citizens,' not only of Chicago, but the country over, 'who knock at the door of the Council' (we shall have a Council here in '98) 'and ask for illegal franchises,' take the discovery? . . . Will they further throughout the country the existence of the conditions under which here in New York the Kingsbridge extension franchise was recently sold to the highest bidder at a net gain of \$250,000 to the city over and above the tax on the gross receipts? Or will they further the continuance of the conditions under which the Broadway and Huckleberry franchises were obtained—a cash sale of votes in one case, a boss's order in the other, for the confirmation of his title by seizure of the streets of a municipal district? . . .

"We have raised our moral plane considerably in these matters. It is no longer safe, for instance, for a politician of national reputation to be caught on the 'ground floor' of business enterprises which depend for their success on legislative favor. But we have a long way to go before we arrive at that stage where a 'respectable' capitalist will be able to see any moral difference between paying a bonus to a municipal corporation and a bribe to a municipal councilman for a public franchise." —*The Press, New York.*

"What is true of New York and Chicago is equally true of a hundred smaller cities. There was never yet a political boss so rascally that 'respectable citizens' were not found hand-in-glove with him, profiting by his favor and giving him the benefit of their respectable indorsement. There isn't an abuse in municipal government, there isn't a corruption in politics, which does not exist to-day by their connivance or by their tolerance." —*The Courant, Hartford.*

EXCITED CHICAGOAN: "Help! help! I've been robbed!" Officer 7865: "Well, well, don't take on so about it. You are alive yet, ain't you?" —*The Journal, Indianapolis.*

SENATOR SHERMAN'S PROPOSED RELIEF FOR THE TREASURY.

IN a carefully prepared speech in the United States Senate last week, Senator Sherman supported the following resolution introduced by him:

"Resolved, That, by injurious legislation by the Fifty-third Congress, the revenues of the Government were reduced below its necessary expenditures, and the fund, created by law, for the redemption of United States notes has been invaded to supply such deficiencies of reserve; that such a misapplication of the resumption fund is of doubtful legality, and is greatly injurious to the public credit and should be prevented by restoring said fund to the sums of not less than \$100,000,000 in gold coin or bullion (to be segregated from all other funds), to be paid out only in the redemption of United States notes; and such notes when redeemed to be reissued only in exchange for gold coin and bullion."

After assigning the Wilson tariff law as the cause of a continual reduction of revenues below expenditures, and referring to the issue of \$162,315,400 in bonds to meet current expenses during this Administration, Senator Sherman declared that the true remedy for the supposed financial distress "is to supply by taxation in some form additional revenue, and, until this can be effected, to borrow from the people of the United States enough money to cover past and future deficiencies. This done, gold will be readily exchanged for United States notes, as was done from January, 1879, to the election of Mr. Cleveland." Mr. Sherman took direct issue with the President for attributing all our financial difficulties to the continued circulation of United States notes and Treasury notes—"debts bearing no interest, amounting to only \$500,000,000." "The right to reissue," Mr. Sherman asserted, "is a necessary incident to a circulating note. The United States does what every bank does, and by this provision furnishes a note for circulation better than any yet devised by mortal man."

Regarding the preservation of the gold reserve, he said:

"The two defects in existing law relating to redemption are mentioned by the President. First, that the notes presented for redemption must be reissued. (It seems from the newspapers that he has found the power to hold notes redeemed until they can be exchanged for coin, a discovery that he should have made sooner.) Second, that the resumption fund is a part of the general balance in the Treasury, and may be applied to current expenditures. Congress neglected to cure the defects pointed out by me as Secretary of the Treasury in 1880, but I hope will correct them now at the request of the President. It was not then anticipated that a deficiency of revenue would occur, or that if it did occur the Government would use a fund specifically pledged for another purpose to meet current liabilities. Notes once redeemed should only be reissued for gold coin, and such reissue should be mandatory when coin is deposited in the Treasury. With this provision of law the scarcity of currency would create such a demand for it that gold will be freely deposited in exchange for the more portable and convenient notes of the United States. The resumption fund should be segregated from all other moneys of the United States and paid out only in redemption of United States notes. With such provisions in the law the resumption fund could not be invaded to meet deficiencies in the revenue. They should be provided for by bonds or certificates of indebtedness of small denominations at a low rate of interest, which would be readily taken by the people through national banks, sub-treasuries, and post-offices."

Senator Sherman suggested that banks should be required to keep their reserve of "lawful money," in United States notes and



THE LATEST HOLD-UP.
—*The World, New York.*

Treasury notes only, in order to prevent timid banks from converting their United States notes into coin, thus further depleting the redemption reserve. He continued:

"National banks are the creation and instruments of the Government, and ought not to be allowed to discredit the money with which they can redeem their own notes."

"Nor should the Government itself be permitted in any way to weaken the credit and confidence of the people in their paper money by using it for current expenses in excess of current revenues. It is a practical fraud for the Government to use these notes for such purposes, and it never has been done except during this Administration. Every dollar thus taken is an impairment of the redemption fund. It is the misapplication of a fund specially created by law for another purpose. The effect is to destroy confidence in the credit and safety of our paper currency."

Since silver certificates are in express terms redeemable in silver dollars, Mr. Sherman thinks that "while the silver dollars are maintained at par with gold it would seem that there was no injustice in paying the silver dollars for silver certificates."

Republican papers are by no means unanimously in favor of Mr. Sherman's proposition regarding greenbacks and Treasury notes.

A Sound Financial Proposition.—"Since Mr. Cleveland's inauguration \$103,000,000 in gold—more than the entire amount regarded as necessary for a reserve fund—have been paid into the Treasury for greenbacks. This process would be as regular and as constant as the withdrawal of gold if the Government would provide sufficient revenue to meet current expenses, instead of periodically rushing into the market in a panic to borrow money at ruinous rates of interest. Senator Sherman's resolution proposes to restrict the reissue of greenbacks and Treasury notes to exchanging them for gold coin or bullion. This is a sound financial proposition. . . . When distrust is not active gold is readily exchanged for greenbacks, and they will thus be kept in circulation. The way to allay distrust is to provide sufficient revenue to meet the current expenses of the Government. Borrowing money has never been conducive to confidence either in private or public affairs. It has to be done sometimes, but it is not a blessing, as the Administration seems to think, but an unmistakable misfortune."—*The American (Rep.), Baltimore.*

The People Have Had Enough Demonetization on the Sly.—"It will be observed that in place of 'coin,' the word used in the resumption act which was passed twenty years ago and has now been in actual operation sixteen years, this resolution would substitute not simply gold coin but gold coin and bullion. The great blunder of the Sherman act of 1890 was its bullion feature. One would suppose that Senator Sherman would have had enough of the bullion policy. But now he would discredit not only all the silver dollars and bullion in the Treasury but monetize gold bars. Does John Sherman really think the country would tamely submit to such a radical monetary revolution? The hook is baited with a merited attack on the Democratic revenue law, but its barb is none the less plainly visible. The American people have had enough demonetization on the sly."

"As for the wiping out of United States notes and Treasury notes, that could be easily accomplished under the resolution. The present Administration could proceed at once to the carrying out of the Cleveland-Carlisle policy. A bond issue of \$500,000,000 could be placed in a very short time, and that would just about cover all of both kinds of notes. There is a little less than \$350,000,000 of the United States notes and a little more than \$150,000,000 of Treasury notes. The resolution fixes a minimum limit, but makes no maximum, and in view of the President's message and the last report of Secretary Carlisle, it is obvious that the adoption by Congress of the Sherman resolution would be speedily followed by the substitution of bonds for both kinds of notes."—*The Inter Ocean (Rep.), Chicago.*

"When every note is either exchangeable for gold that is actually in the Treasury or is itself in the Treasury and can not be got out except in exchange for gold, the notes are the equivalent of gold in our circulation. If we start with \$100,000,000 gold which is paid out only for notes, and replenished to that limit as fast as it is paid out, and if the notes thus redeemed are paid out only for gold, the notes must gradually either be all in the Treasury or be represented by gold that is there. This is turning about face on everything the Ohio Senator has ever said on this question. Why he has changed we can not say. . . . Whatever

his motive, we welcome his action. He has deserted the 'blood-stained' greenback. He is committed to the direct and practical and unqualified application of the gold standard."—*The Times (Dem.), New York.*

"To make greenbacks in the Treasury exchangeable—issuable only for gold is to discredit silver; and that is to make a mockery of the 'parity' which the Republican Party has declared its purpose to preserve."—*The Recorder (Rep.), New York.*

CAUSES OF TROUBLE IN THE TRANSVAAL.

DR. JAMESON, an administrator for the British South African Chartered Company in Mashonaland, recently led a band of about 800 men into the Transvaal against the Dutch "Boers," who politically control that South African Republic. Ostensibly the expedition was in behalf of the Uitlanders, the foreign residents who are forbidden rights of citizenship by the Boers. In an engagement the expedition was defeated, Dr. Jameson and many of his followers being made prisoners by the Boers. The British Colonial Office ordered the expedition recalled.

Emperor William of Germany cabled congratulations to President Krüger of the Transvaal on his success, and English papers are greatly exercised over the complications of the situation. Germany has neighboring colonial possessions in Africa and the Boers defer to her, while they are hostile to Great Britain. The Boers left the Cape of Good Hope for Natal, and Natal for the Transvaal as each passed under British control. They have now become outnumbered in the Transvaal, and troubles appear to have culminated in the Jameson expedition. Some German papers declare that this invasion has violated the treaty of 1884, which defined the suzerainty of Great Britain in the Transvaal, and that the Transvaal will thus regain independence in international relations. We quote American journals on the causes of the trouble.

The Transvaal is Guilty of Having Gold-Mines.—"That an attempt should be made by the English to extinguish the independence of the South African Republic is not surprising. The far-reaching project of Cecil Rhodes, the premier of the Cape Colony, must long have included British control of the Dutch state known as the South African Republic. Queen Victoria is nominally suzerain of the South African Republic, whose foreign relations are managed by Great Britain, but the actual administration of its internal affairs is kept jealously in the hands of the 'Boers,' as colonists of Dutch blood are called. The immediate occasion of the present trouble is the demand of the English settled in the South African Republic for representation in its legislature. This demand is said to have been met with an offer of concession entirely unsatisfactory to the English, whose pretensions Rhodes is anxious to back up with a force supplied by the chartered company of which he is 'boss.' Mr. Chamberlain, colonial secretary in Lord Salisbury's Cabinet, is reported to have ordered this expedition to be recalled, but Rhodes has a way of dragging the home Government after him. . . .

"While the occasion of the crisis is the claim of the British to a share in the government of the republic, the cause is undoubtedly



KING OF ASHANTEE:—"But hold on; aren't you horrified at the idea of war?"
JOHN BULL:—"Yes; with folks of our own size. Say your prayers!"

—*Inter Ocean, Chicago.*

course the English miner was foremost. The city of Johannesburg has boomed almost to greatness, for it now has with its suburbs not far from fifty thousand inhabitants, or ten times as many as Pretoria, the Boer capital.

"The mines are mainly owned in London, which has thus obtained great influence in the Republic by means of an army that can be maneuvered from the stock exchange. Against such an army the Boers would doubtless make a defense as gallant as their tacit resistance has been obstinate, but in the end they would have to yield to the inevitable, and purchase peace at the price of what independence is now left to them. The South African Republic is guilty of having within its borders gold-mines yielding from \$25,000,000 to \$35,000,000 a year, a circumstance which, together with its resistance to British influence, may cost it dear. . . . The republic is supposed to have between 500,000 and 600,000 inhabitants, of whom about two thirds are blacks."—*The Transcript, Boston.*

The "Uitlanders" are in the Right.—"As for the causes of the trouble, it may be said frankly that the 'Uitlanders' are in the right and the Boers in the wrong. The former have been treated by the latter in a scandalous manner. They have a right to demand redress for their grievances; and if they do not get it, they will have the sympathy of the civilized world in any efforts they may make for their own protection and welfare. It is entirely true that the Boers own the country. It is equally true that they opened it to immigration, and invited settlers to come in. The settlers did go in, by the thousand, from the United States and the British Empire and from Germany. They literally saved the Republic from bankruptcy, and made it rich and prosperous beyond all dreams of its founders. They have fought its battles against the native tribes. They have built its railroads. They pay nine tenths of all its taxes. And what do they get in return?

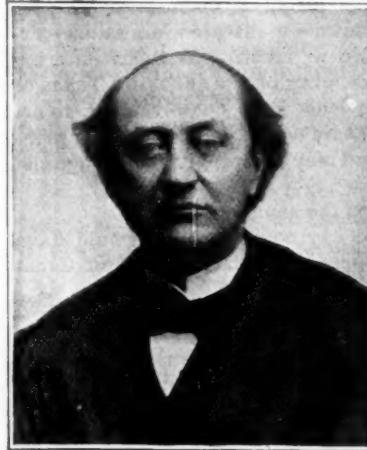
"They are denied all rights of citizenship. Neither they nor their children who are born on Transvaal soil are allowed to become citizens, to hold office, to vote, or even to gather together in public meetings. They are taxed, and heavily taxed, but have no representation in the Government. They are taxed for the support of Dutch schools, but no English schools, nor even English instruction, are granted to their children. They are not even permitted to conduct private schools for their children, at their own expense, except on condition that in them they will teach their children to speak Dutch. In such towns as Johannesburg, which has 60,000 inhabitants, they are not allowed to have a municipal government or an adequate police force. Some 300 Boer laborers are the only persons in all Johannesburg who are permitted to vote, and they send just one of their number to the national legislature! The 50,000 intelligent Americans and English, who built the city and pay the expenses of the Government, are of no more account than so many sticks of wood."—*The Tribune, New York.*

Characteristic English Enterprise.—"Dr. Jameson's march into the Transvaal was a characteristically English stroke of enterprise. He was not a reckless adventurer, not a filibusterer with a great deal to gain and nothing to lose; he took a great risk, and he knew it; but it was one of those occasions when, like Nelson's refusal to see the signal of recall which would have lost a victory, success would atone for all shortcomings and insure a brave reward. Jameson's career as a wise, prudent, and successful administrator in England's African colonies shows that he probably organized his expedition against Johannesburg after coolly calculating the chances and deciding that they were in favor of success. Had he not been disappointed in his expectations, had the 'Uitlanders' in Johannesburg risen as planned, and had not a stern word from the German Emperor scared the home Government into sudden repudiation of his enterprise, Dr. Jameson might be to-day the most famous man in South Africa—just as Napoleon might have been the arbiter of Europe if his plans had not miscarried at Waterloo. It is not certain, however, that Jameson's star has set as completely as did Napoleon's. England has use for men who can take desperate chances on her account, and while it may not be considered safe to give Jameson a position of prominence again, nobody need be surprised if, when the excitement dies away, he is quietly transferred to some inconspicuous but lucrative post, of which there are many in the colonial department of her Majesty's Government."—*The Ledger, Philadelphia.*

THE SELECTIONS FOR THE BOUNDARY COMMISSION.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND last week appointed a Venezuelan Boundary Commission of five members. The law authorizing their appointment appropriates \$100,000 for the expenses of a Commission "to investigate and report upon the true divisional line between the Republic of Venezuela and British Guiana."

The members of the Commission are David J. Brewer, of Kansas, associate-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States; Richard H. Alvey, of Maryland, chief-justice of the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia; Andrew D. White, ex-president of Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.; Frederic R. Coudert, a leading lawyer of New York city, and Daniel C.



DAVID J. BREWER.

Gilman, president of the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md. Justice Brewer and ex-President White are Republicans, Judge Alvey and Mr. Coudert Democrats; President Gilman is said to be independent in politics. Justice Brewer is a graduate of Yale, served as judge of the Kansas Supreme Court 1870-1881, was appointed circuit judge of the Eighth Circuit in 1889, and Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court by President

Harrison in 1889. Judge Alvey served on the judiciary committee of the Maryland Constitutional Convention in 1867, as chief judge of the Fourth Circuit, as chief-justice of the State Court of Appeals, resigning the last office to accept that of chief-justice of the Federal Court of Appeals in the District of Columbia. Ex-President White was a member of the San Domingo Commission in 1871, was appointed Minister to Germany by President Hayes and Minister to Russia by President Harrison. President Gilman is an eminent historian, and was elected first president of the Johns Hopkins University in 1875. He is the author of a biography of James Monroe, American Statesman series. Mr. Coudert was one of the counsel for the United States before the Bering Sea Commission. The commissioners have elected Justice Brewer chairman.

The personnel of the Commission finds much favor with the press, with some notable exceptions. The functions of the Commission, and the possible effects of its findings, have occupied a large share of press attention.

A Fair and Authoritative Commission.—"The excellence of the Commission named by the President for investigating and reporting upon the boundary line between Venezuela and British Guiana will do more than anything else could to produce, both here and in Europe, the conviction that whatever the United States may do further in the dispute will be done with circumspection, care, and a full sense of responsibility. Two of our most eminent judges, two men who have been at the head of great institutions of learning and whose chief intellectual interests have lain in the direction of historical and geographical study, and one distinguished lawyer who (as well as one of the college presidents) has had experience in international affairs—such a constitution of the Commission is, on its face, a most desirable one. None of the members, we believe, entertains any political aspirations, and all of them can be counted on to do their utmost to make their investigation as fair and their conclusions as authoritative as possible."—*The News (Dem.), Baltimore.*

The Commissioners Command Respect and Confidence.—"The character and standing of the commissioners are such

that there can be little doubt that they will try to be impartial and thorough in their investigations and discreet and even judicial in their findings. They are men who, if not in every instance of the very highest grade of American citizenship, nevertheless command respect and confidence, and whatever decision they may reach will, if unanimous, carry weight with it. They are men of mature years, of experience in affairs, accustomed to careful study and to the analysis and sifting of evidence, legal, historical, and political. Until compelled to take a different view the country will have confidence in their ability to acquire from original study the information necessary to the formation of a fair opinion and confidence also in the discretion and good sense of the report they will make."—*The Journal (Ind.), Providence.*

Not an Ideal Commission.—"It may be said without a trace of ill-will toward any individual that it is not an ideal Commission, or at least that it is not likely so to impress at once the country and the world. To compare a great affair with one of minor importance, the committee which is considering the Dunraven charges is universally recognized as an extraordinarily sagacious and fortunate combination of all the elements essential to the purpose of that investigation. Such is not the case with the Venezuela Commission, perhaps because it does not fully represent the President's original intentions. And yet it is not open to harsh criticism, so far as its mental and moral qualities are concerned. Its members are men of serious character and of much experience in weighty matters, and as a whole it seems to comprise all the talents necessary for a just solution of a difficult problem. . . . The country will confidently expect a Commission so constituted to manifest at every stage of its undertaking a deep sense of the responsibility which it has assumed. For the present this is all that it is either possible or needful to predict concerning its momentous proceedings."—*The Tribune (Rep.), New York.*

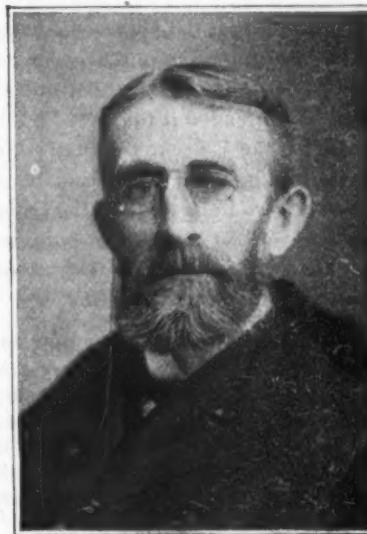
Diversion of the Judiciary is Deplored.—"Judge Brewer is able, judicious, and wise. His career on the bench has stamped him as a strong, clear-headed jurist who unites good sense with large legal learning. Tho he is not personally much known in England, the Supreme Court as a tribunal has high repute there, and an appointment from its ranks will make a favorable impression. In this country there are many who deplore the frequent diversion of the judiciary to other service."—*The Press (Rep.), Philadelphia.*

Cabled English Comments.

Excepting Mr. Coudert, all that can be said for the nominees is that, while they are reputable and may be absolutely fair-minded men, they have no such weight as will command for their conclusions any recognition outside of the United States. Unfortunately, even if the nominees were more impressive, their value would be impaired by the addition of Mr. Coudert, whose offensive judgment of the matters in controversy is not only insulting, but is manifestly actuated by a bias that is entirely incompatible with the judicial spirit President Cleveland professed to contemplate in his message."—*The Times.*

"It would not be for Englishmen to criticize the gentlemen who have consented to assist the President's studies of political geography. If their names command the confidence of the American people, that is all that can be expected or desired, tho we shall watch their doings with curiosity, and even respect. That will be the beginning and end of our interest."—*The Standard.*

"The nominations will win general respect in England, where public opinion will readily recognize a Commission which diplomacy must necessarily ignore. Its report can not fail to be instructive to both sides. During the interval of the inquiry the jingoes of both countries will confer the greatest possible benefit on humanity by not making a noise."—*The Daily News.*



ANDREW D. WHITE.

TWO EMINENT HISTORIANS ON THE MEANING OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

OPPOSITE views of the meaning of the Monroe doctrine and its applicability to the Venezuelan controversy are held by two recognized authorities on American history—Prof. J. B. McMaster, of the University of Pennsylvania, and Prof. von Holst, of the Chicago University. Expressions from each were briefly quoted in these columns two weeks ago. Since then each has given forth a more careful and elaborate statement of his views.

Dr. von Holst, who occupies the chair of Constitutional Law at the Chicago University and is author of the well-known "Constitutional and Political History of the United States," in a signed article in the *Chicago Times-Herald*, December 28, takes the position that the Monroe doctrine does not apply to the Venezuelan dispute, because that doctrine is "not what Cleveland and Olney tell us it ought to be, but solely what its authors understood and intended it to be." Possibly, he says, the people ought to indorse the Cleveland-Olney policy unanimously and with the greatest enthusiasm; "but not because of the Monroe doctrine; it would have to be done on the strength of other reasons." Professor von Holst quotes this paragraph from President Monroe's message of December 2, 1823, as comprising "what is usually termed 'The Monroe Doctrine':

"In the wars of European powers in matters relating to themselves we have never taken any part, nor does it comport with our policy to do so. It is only when our rights are invaded or seriously menaced that we resent injuries or make preparation for our defense. With the movements in this hemisphere we are of necessity more immediately connected and by causes which must be obvious to all enlightened and impartial observers. The political system of the allied powers is essentially different in this respect from that of America. This difference proceeds from that which exists in their respective governments. And to the defense of our own, which has been achieved by the loss of so much blood and treasure and matured by the wisdom of the most enlightened citizens, and under which we have enjoyed unexampled felicity, this whole nation is devoted. We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it and whose independence we have on great consideration and on just principles acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them or controlling in any other manner their destiny by any European power in any other light than as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States. In the war between those new governments and Spain, we declared our neutrality at the time of their organization, and to this we have adhered and shall continue to adhere, provided no change shall occur which in the judgment of the competent authorities of this Government shall make a corresponding change on the part of the United States indispensable to their security."

From the diary of John Quincy Adams, President Monroe's Secretary of State, Professor von Holst concludes that Mr. Adams is the real author of the doctrine, and therefore the primary and principal authority in regard to it. He quotes from the diary entries showing that the first impulse to the announcement of the policy was given by England, and that its point was turned against the Holy Alliance. Mr. Adams wrote, November 7, 1823:

"Cabinet meeting at the President's from half-past one to four. Mr. Calhoun, Secretary of War, Mr. Southart, Secretary of the Navy, present. The subject for consideration was the confidential proposals of the British Secretary of State, George Canning, to R. Rush (the American representative at the Court of St. James), and the correspondence between them relating to the products of the Holy Alliance upon South America. There was much conversation without coming to any definite point. The

object of Canning appears to have been to obtain some public pledge from the Government of the United States ostensibly against the forcible interference of the Holy Alliance between Spain and South America, but really or especially against the acquisition to the United States themselves of any part of the Spanish-American possessions.

"Mr. Calhoun inclined to giving a discretionary power to Mr. Rush to join in a declaration against the interference of the Holy Allies if necessary, even if it should pledge us not to take Cuba or the province of Texas; because the power of Great Britain being greater than ours to seize upon them, we should get the advantage of obtaining from her the same declaration we should make ourselves.

"I thought the cases not parallel. We have no intention of seizing either Texas or Cuba. But the inhabitants of either or both may exercise their primitive rights and solicit a union with us. They will certainly do no such thing to Great Britain. By joining with her, therefore, in her proposed declaration we give her a substantial and perhaps inconvenient pledge against ourselves and really obtain nothing in return. Without entering now into the inquiry of the expediency of our annexing Texas or Cuba to our Union, we should at least keep ourselves free to act as emergencies may arise and not tie ourselves down to any principle which immediately afterward may be brought to bear against ourselves.

"Mr. Southart inclined much to the same opinion.

"The President was averse to any course which should have the appearance of taking a position subordinate to that of Great Britain."

And again Adams wrote, November 13:

"I find him (the President) yet altogether unsettled in his own mind as to the answer to be given to Mr. Canning's proposals, and alarmed far beyond anything that I could have conceived possible with a fear that the Holy Alliance are about to restore immediately all South America to Spain.

"On the 21st of November, I mentioned also my wish to prepare a paper to be delivered confidentially to Baron Tuy (the Russian ambassador). . . . My purpose would be in a moderate and conciliatory manner, but with a firm and determined spirit, to declare our dissent from the principles avowed in these communications (from the Russian Government in regard to the questions of the Spanish Colonies on America); to assert those upon which our own Government is founded, and while disclaiming all intention of attempting to propagate them by force and all interference with the political affairs of Europe, to declare our expectation and hope that the European powers will abstain from the attempt to spread their principles in the American hemisphere or to subjugate by force any part of these continents to their will."

November 22:

"I spoke to him (the President) again, urging him to abstain from everything in his message which the Holy Allies could make a pretext for construing into aggression upon them. . . . If the Holy Alliance were determined to make up an issue with us it was our policy to meet and not to make it. We should retreat to the wall before taking to arms, and be sure at every step to put them as much as possible in the wrong. I said if the Holy Alliance really intended to restore by force the Colonies of Spain to her dominion it was questionable to me whether we had not after all been over-hasty in acknowledging the South American independence."

Dr. von Holst says that the President, after much vacillation, adopted Mr. Adams's views, which, furthermore, coincided with those he supposed Mr. Canning to hold, one object being merely concerted expression of sentiment that should avert the necessity of war. Dr. von Holst quotes Mr. Jefferson's opinions without comment, and turns to "the interpretation given to the Monroe doctrine right on the heels of its promulgation by the principal authors of it." He writes:

"John Quincy Adams, now President of the United States, said in his message to the Senate concerning the proposed Congress of American States at Panama in 1826: 'An agreement between all the parties represented at the meeting that each will guard BY ITS OWN MEANS against the establishment of any future European colony within its borders may be found advisable. This (!) was more than two years since announced by my

predecessor to the world as a principle resulting from the emancipation of both the American continents. It may be so developed to the new Southern nations that they may feel it as an essential appendage to their own independence.'

"Mr. Benton, from whom I take this quotation (Abridgment of the Debates of Congress, vol. vii., p. 471, footnote) adds:

The circumstances of this communication render it incredible that he (Adams) could be deceived in his understanding of this comprehensive doctrine; and according to him this Monroe Doctrine—(under which it has been of late supposed that the United States were to stand guard over the two Americas and repulse all intrusive European colonies from their shores)—WAS ENTIRELY CONFINED TO OUR OWN BORDERS; that it was ONLY proposed to get the other states of the new world to agree that EACH FOR ITSELF AND BY ITS OWN MEANS SHOULD GUARD ITS OWN TERRITORIES; and consequently that the United States SO FAR FROM EXTENDING GRATUITOUS PROTECTION TO THE TERRITORIES OF OTHER STATES WOULD NOT COMMIT ITSELF EITHER TO GIVE OR RECEIVE AID IN ANY SUCH ENTERPRISE, BUT THAT EACH SHOULD USE ITS OWN MEANS WITHIN ITS OWN BORDERS FOR ITS OWN EXEMPTION FROM EUROPEAN COLONIAL INTRUSION. And this was in exact conformity to an earlier and cherished policy enunciated by Washington and sanctioned by the public sentiments of two generations:

"No entangling alliances."

Dr. von Holst cites a special message from President Adams March 15, 1826, regarding the Panama Congress, and cites in addition the report of the Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs. He refers also to the withdrawal of Henry Clay's resolution against "any forcible interposition by the allied powers of Europe," and the conservative McLain resolution passed by a vote of 99 to 95 in the House in 1826. Concerning this last resolution Daniel Webster, tho strongly opposing it, said:

"As to all that part of the amendment indeed which asserts the neutral policy of the United States and the inexpediency of forming alliances, no man assents to these sentiments more readily or more entirely than myself. On these points we are all agreed. Such is our opinion; such the President assures us in terms is his opinion; such we know to be the opinion of the country."

And finally:

"It is not a slight injury to our interest; it is not even a great inconvenience that makes out a case (for interference by the United States). There must be danger to our security, MANIFEST AND IMMINENT DANGER TO OUR ESSENTIAL RIGHTS AND OUR ESSENTIAL INTERESTS."

Quotations are then made from Mr. Calhoun's speech on the proposed occupation of Yucatan, May 14, 1848, in which he said:

"All this has passed away. That very movement on the part of England, sustained by this declaration, gave a blow to the celebrated alliance (Holy Alliance) from which it never recovered. . . . The President [Polk] has quoted that very declaration in support of his recommendation; but in a manner changing entirely its meaning, by separating it from the context as it stood in the message and which referred it to the allied powers; and placing it in connection with a portion of his message which made it refer to Great Britain, Spain, or other European powers. The change has made the declaration so inconsistent and absurd that had it been made by Mr. Monroe as it stands in the President's message it would have been the subject of the animadversion and ridicule, instead of receiving as it did the approbation and applause, of the whole country. . . . It would have involved the absurdity of asserting that the attempt of any European state to extend its system of government to this continent, the smallest as well as the greatest, would endanger the peace and the safety of our country."

". . . BUT NO GENERAL RULE CAN BE LAID DOWN TO GUIDE US IN SUCH A QUESTION. EVERY CASE MUST SPEAK FOR ITSELF. EVERY CASE MUST BE DECIDED ON ITS OWN MERITS. WHETHER YOU WILL RESIST OR NOT AND THE MEASURE OF YOUR RESISTANCE—WHETHER IT SHALL BE BY NEGOTIATION, REMONSTRANCE, OR SOME INTERMEDIATE MEASURE OR BY A RESORT TO ARMS; ALL THIS MUST BE DETERMINED AND DECIDED ON THE MERITS OF THE QUESTION ITSELF. THIS IS THE ONLY WISE COURSE. WE ARE NOT TO HAVE QUOTED ON US ON EVERY OCCASION GENERAL DECLARATIONS TO WHICH ANY AND EVERY

MEANING MAY BE ATTACHED." [The capitalization is by Professor von Holst.]

On the other hand, John Bach McMaster, professor of history in the University of Pennsylvania and author of "History of the People of the United States," gives in a signed article in *The Times*, New York, January 1, the following exposition of the Monroe doctrine:

"When Monroe received the letters of Rush he seems to have been greatly puzzled how to act. The suggestion of England that the time had come to make a declaration of some sort admitted of no dispute. But how was it to be made? If he joined with Great Britain, would he not be forming one of the 'political connections' Washington had denounced in his 'Farewell Address,' one of the 'entangling alliances' of which Jefferson had given warning in his first inaugural speech? Should he make it alone, would he not be violating that policy of non-interference in the affairs of the colonies which he had himself advised in six messages and two inaugural speeches? Uncertain what to do, he turned to Jefferson for advice, and sent the letters of Rush to Monticello, and late in October received a reply:

"The question presented by the letters you have sent me is the most momentous which has ever been offered to my contemplation since that of Independence. That made us a nation; this sets our compass and points the course which we are to steer through the ocean of time opening on us. And never could we embark upon it under circumstances more auspicious. Our first and fundamental maxim should be, never to entangle ourselves in the broils of Europe; our second, never to suffer Europe to intermeddle with cisatlantic affairs. America, North and South, has a set of interests distinct from those of Europe, and peculiarly her own. She should, therefore, have a system of her own, separate and apart from that of Europe. While the last is laboring to become the domicile of despotism, our endeavor should surely be to make our hemisphere that of freedom."

"Thus encouraged, not simply to meet an emergency, but to 'point the course which we are to steer through the ocean of time opening on us,' Monroe consulted his Secretaries, and, with their approval, announced the new policy of our country. . . ."

Professor McMaster begins his quotation of the "Monroe doctrine" with the words "The political system of the allied powers is essentially different," etc., omits the last sentence of the paragraph quoted by Professor von Holst, and quotes further from President Monroe's message:

"Our policy in regard to Europe [says President Monroe], which was adopted at an early stage of the wars which have so long agitated that quarter of the globe, nevertheless remains the same, which is not to interfere in the internal concerns of any of its powers; to consider the Government *de facto* as the legitimate Government for us; to cultivate friendly relations with it, and to preserve those relations by a frank, firm, and manly policy; meeting in all instances the just claims of every power, submitting to injuries from none. But, in regard to these continents, circumstances are eminently and conspicuously different. It is impossible that the allied powers should extend their political system to any portion of either continent without endangering our peace and happiness; nor can any one believe that our Southern brethren, if left to themselves, would adopt it of their own accord. It is equally impossible, therefore, that we should behold such interposition, in any form, with indifference."

Professor McMaster comments as follows:

"The doctrine was for all time, and, put in plain language, was this: 1. The United States will 'not interfere in the internal concerns' of any European power. 2. 'But in regard to these continents [North and South America] circumstances are eminently and conspicuously different,' and if any European power attempts at any future time to extend its political system to any part of this hemisphere 'for the purpose of oppressing' the nations or 'CONTROLLING IN ANY OTHER MANNER THEIR DESTINY' the United States will interfere."

"Of this doctrine an immediate application was made to the Holy Allies. It might have been conveyed to each of them under cover of an official note. But Monroe preferred to announce it before the world, and in his message warned them that any attempt on their part to violate the doctrine would be 'dangerous

to our peace and safety' and a 'manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States.'

"Having thus announced that we would not meddle in European affairs nor suffer the nations of the Old World to interfere with the domestic concerns of the nations of the New, it soon became necessary to define our own attitude toward the young republics of South America. Indeed, two years had not elapsed when the United States was formally invited by Colombia and Mexico to be represented in a congress of republics at Panama, at which it was officially stated the delegates would be expected 'to take into consideration the means of making effectual the declaration of the President of the United States respecting any ulterior design of a foreign power to colonize any portion of this continent, and also the means of resisting all interference from abroad with the domestic concerns of the American governments.'

"To cite the debate which in the Senate and the House followed the request of the President that commissioners be sent to Panama is idle. Adams as President, and Clay as Secretary of State, approved, and that was reason enough why Hayne of South Carolina and Woodbury of New Hampshire, White of Tennessee, Van Buren, Buchanan, Polk, Berrien, and Rives should oppose it. The discussion was partisan throughout. But the resolution which the House spread in its journal is worth citing:

"It is therefore the opinion of this House that the Government of the United States ought not to be represented at the Congress of Panama except in a diplomatic character, nor ought they to form any alliance, offensive or defensive, or negotiate respecting such an alliance, with all or any of the South American republics; nor ought they to become parties with them, or either of them, to any joint declaration for the purpose of preventing the interference of any of the European powers with their independence or form of government, or to any compact for the purpose of preventing colonization upon the continents of America, but that the people of the United States should be left free to act, in any crisis, in such a manner as their feelings of friendship toward these republics and as their own honor and policy may at the time dictate."

"Thus was affirmed two parts of the Monroe doctrine: 1. Not to form any alliance with any foreign nation, nor join with it in any declaration concerning the interference of any European power in its affairs. 2. To act toward them 'in any crisis' as our 'honor and policy may at the time dictate.'

"Thus was our true attitude toward the nations of the New World defined and the Monroe doctrine completed.

"Of the men who took part in that famous debate two are of especial interest to us, for in the course of time each was called on to apply the doctrine he opposed, and each in turn abandoned the position he held in 1826. One is James K. Polk; the other is James Buchanan."

Professor McMaster quotes Mr. Polk in 1826, when Congressman from Tennessee, as saying that the Monroe doctrine had been "designed to produce an effect on the councils of the Holy Alliance" and "had performed its office;" but he finds that Polk, as President in 1845, seeing a war with Mexico before him and serious trouble with England over the Oregon country, realized that the doctrine still had an office to perform. Professor McMaster asserts that the trouble over the Oregon country was "as much a territorial dispute as that now going on with Venezuela," and he says:

"Polk did not hesitate to apply the Monroe doctrine and to assert [in his message to Congress] that, 'in the existing circumstances of the world, the present is deemed a proper occasion to reiterate and reaffirm the principle avowed by Mr. Monroe, and to state my cordial concurrence in its wisdom and sound policy. The reassertion of this principle, especially in reference to North America, is, at this day, but the promulgation of a policy which no European power should cherish the disposition to resist. Existing rights of every European nation should be respected, but it is due alike to our safety and our interests that the efficient protection of our laws should be extended over our whole territorial limits, and that it should be distinctly announced to the world as our settled policy, that no future European colony or dominion shall, with our consent, be planted or established on any part of the North American continent.'

"Again a little while and Polk applied the doctrine to the purely territorial case of Yucatan. A war had broken out between the Indians and the whites, who, driven to desperation, appealed for help to England, Spain, and the United States,

offering in return the dominion and sovereignty of the peninsula. This was not a case of interference by any foreign power. No effort was being made by any European nation to 'extend its system.' Two such powers had been invited by a hard-pressed people struggling for life to defend them and take in return their country. But Polk, taking the broad ground that any European people who by any means gained on our continents one foot of territory more than they had in 1823, even with the consent and at the request of the owners of it, were 'extending their system,' sent this message to Congress in 1848:

"While it is not my purpose to recommend the adoption of any measure with a view to the acquisition of the 'dominion and sovereignty' over Yucatan, yet, according to our established policy, we could not consent to a transfer of this 'dominion and sovereignty' to either Spain, Great Britain, or any other European power. In the language of President Monroe, in his message of December, 1823, 'we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety.'

"It would be controlling 'the destiny' of the people concerned.

"Precisely the same view was taken by Cass when Secretary of State under Buchanan in the case of Mexico. The political condition of Mexico was frightful. Since the day Spain acknowledged her independence in 1821 there had never been a moment of quiet. In thirty-three years thirty-six governments had been set up and pulled down, and of them all the worst were those of Miramon and Juarez, by whom such enormities were committed that England, France, and Spain decided on armed intervention in Mexican affairs. Against this, in 1860, both Cass and Buchanan protested.

"While,' said the Secretary, 'we do not deny the right of any other power to carry on hostile operations against Mexico, for the redress of its grievances, we firmly object to its holding possession of any part of that country, or endeavoring by force to control its political destiny. . . .'

"I deemed it my duty,' said the President in his message in December, 1860, 'to recommend to Congress, in my last annual message, the employment of a sufficient military force to penetrate into the interior. . . . European governments would have been deprived of all pretext to interfere in the territorial and domestic concerns of Mexico. We should thus have been relieved from the obligation of resisting, even by force should this become necessary, any attempt by these governments to deprive our neighboring republic of portions of her territory—a duty from which we could not shrink without abandoning the traditional and established policy of the American people.'

"Three statements are contained in this exposition of the doctrine: 1. That we have a duty resting on us which we can not shirk without abandoning the traditional and established policy of the American people. 2. This duty is to resist any attempt by a European government to deprive our neighboring republic of portions of her territory. 3. That, if necessary, resistance must go even to the use of force.

"This exposition by Buchanan is sound and good and is exactly the position taken by Mr. Cleveland. . . ."

Good Effects of the Atlanta Exposition.—In the opinion of a large number of papers, the Cotton States and International Exposition at Atlanta, Ga., has been of lasting value to the country, altho it may not have paid for itself financially. The Atlanta *Constitution* says: "We should remember that the money put into the Exposition was an investment, and that the returns were not expected to come in the shape of gate receipts alone, but in the shape of outside capital, immigration, new enterprises, progress, and material development running through many years to come. Viewed in this light it is not too much to say that the Exposition will be the most profitable investment ever made by a Southern city. Its splendid results will be felt for generations." The Nashville *American* says that what Atlanta and Georgia did in 1895, Nashville and Tennessee can do in 1896 with the Tennessee Centennial. The Chicago *Chronicle* thinks that "the Atlanta Exposition showed that the negro can develop, and it showed that his white neighbors were ready to encourage his development. Both may have been propositions too simple to need demonstration, but they did need it and have received it." The Philadelphia *Record* says, "A favorite argument for a foreign war has been that it would reunite the sections. The answer to this sophistry is that the sections are already reunited; and no single influence has contributed more directly to the restoration of amity than the Exposition which is now a matter of history."

W. D. HOWELLS ON INDUSTRIAL LIBERTY.

IT is a fundamental proposition of the Socialistic philosophy that there can be no true liberty for the individual under an industrial system which renders the many dependent on the few for their means of livelihood. The wage-worker, the poor farmer, the professional man, are said to be as enslaved economically, in spite of their political liberties and rights, as were the actual slaves and serfs in the days when freedom of contract and representative government did not exist. Mr. Wm. D. Howells, whose socialistic sympathies are well known, shares this view. He elaborates it in an article in the current issue of *The Forum*, wherein he argues that liberty and poverty are incompatible and that our much-vaunted freedom is simply a delusion. Suffrage, elections, contracts, he holds, have nothing to do with real liberty. To quote:

"We are still deluded with the antique ideal of liberty, which lords it over the imagination in politics, as the antique ideal of beauty lords it over the imagination in esthetics. This ideal of liberty is the creature of rhetoric very largely; so far as it ever had reality it was the prepotence of a slaveholder who freed himself from tyranny by violence. In his conception, liberty was narrowed to his city or country; it was a Hellenic or a Roman privilege, and not a human right. It was, to be sure, the condition of things unexampled and unexcelled. It gave us literature, sculpture, and architecture still unrivaled; it gave us law which is still the norm of legislation; it gave us a form of society which is the vision of the future state. But the liberty which flowered in the culture of Athens, the legality of Rome, and the socialism of Sparta, was rooted in slavery crueler than the cruelest oppression of any modern despotism. It was the denial of the aspiration for freedom in those whose captivity it rested upon; and as an ideal it has been the fruitful mother of atrocities. Yet still it is in this image that the notion of liberty first presents itself to the mind, just as the thought of beauty first presents itself in the antique ideal. It appears something final, absolute, a good in itself. But liberty is never a good in itself, and is never final; it is a means to something good, and a way to the end which its lovers are really seeking. It is provisionally a blessing, but it is purely provisional; it is self-limited, and is forever merging into some sort of subjection. It no sooner establishes itself than it begins to control itself. The dream of infinite and immutable liberty is the hallucination of the Anarchist, that is, of the Individualist gone mad. The moment liberty in this meaning was achieved, we should have the rule, not of the wisest, not of the best, not even of the most, but of the strongest, and no liberty at all."

If, then, freedom is not a question of political rights at all, what is its true nature, and under what conditions is it possible? Mr. Howells answers:

"Not every citizen of a free country is a free man. He is a free man if he has the means of livelihood, and is assured in their possession; if he is independent of others. But if he is dependent upon some other man for the means of earning a livelihood, he is not free. Freedom in fact, which in its highest effect is self-sacrifice, and of the skies, is chained to the earth in the question of necessity, as certainly as the soul is chained to the earth in the body. It is only occasionally a political affair, a civic affair; it is constantly a social affair, a pecuniary affair, an economic affair. It is true that in a tyranny the richest are not free; but in a democracy not only is no man free without the means of livelihood, but the richer man is always freer than the poorer man, as he is in every state. . . .

"The poor man knows, if the rich man does not know, that the poorer man has always less liberty than the richer man, just as certainly as that he has less money. If he has not the means of livelihood in his own hands, he can not come and go when he will; he can not command his time; he can not choose the kind of work he will do, as the richer man measurably can; he is often enslaved to hateful and loathsome services for others, such as each should do for himself. Till a man is independent he is not free; as long as he must look to the pleasure or the profit of another man for his living he is not independent."

The labor troubles are simply an attempt to obtain real free-

dom, says Mr. Howells. The question at first is one of more wages, but more wages means more ease, comfort, freedom. The workingman everywhere and always has felt that society ought to assure him the means of earning a livelihood, and this feeling, continues Mr. Howells, has more than once found pathetic expression in history. The following instances are cited:

"When the serfs were liberated in Russia they expected that the land would belong to them because they alone had worked the land. In fact, Stepaniak tells us that the landowners themselves would scarcely have felt wronged if they had been expropriated from the acres they had never touched in behalf of the peasants who had tilled them. At the end of our own war, when the slave's dream of freedom came true, he believed that the gift of liberty would be followed with the gift of forty acres and a mule to every head of a family. When his fond delusion became known to the nation which had broken the chains of the oppressed and bidden them go free and see what they could do to keep from starving, a roar of derision went up from all the millions of American humorists. We thought it much less comical to give our acres, not by forties but by millions, to certain railroad companies. Now that turns out to have been a great joke, too, and we are laughing again, but on the wrong side of our mouths."

Mr. Howells does not definitely say how real liberty may be achieved, but indirectly he indorses the socialist plan of state control of production and distribution. He insists that opportunity and safety are the conditions of liberty, and that man must be freed alike from want and the dread of want. He says:

"Some say that those things which are essential to liberty cannot safely be trusted in private hands; for the individual may use them not only to assure himself of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, but he may use them to jeopardize another in life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. These philosophers have imagined that all should own the means which form the opportunity and safety of each, and so far no one else has imagined any other way out of the trouble, tho few are ready to take this way."

TOPICS IN BRIEF.

EVERYBODY'S WORLD.

Lots o' politicians—
Mighty brainy men—
Only gits positions
Ter let 'em go again.
Others whose orations
Ye very seldom hear
Seems ter hold their stations
Steady, year by year.
Each man hez his chances
Made ter fit his skill;
Some by work advances,
An' some by settin' still.

—*The Star, Washington.*

EUROPE, not England, is the mother of America. England never was the mother of America. She was at one time the tyrannous, outrageous stepmother of this young country, and even such claim as she might assert from that position was settled forever and a day at Yorktown in the State named for the virgin queen of England.—*The Chronicle, Chicago.*

If the unpleasantness with England is settled by arbitration, it will be only another proof that it takes two of a size to arbitrate.—*The Transcript, Boston.*

"THE President first declared war and then made an assignment."—Attributed to Speaker Reed.

IT is a reassuring fact that the demand for Uncle Sam's bonds always exceeds the supply.—*The Star, Washington.*

As regards a third term, Grover Cleveland will not even be represented by a substitute.—*The Press, New York.*

AT last the powers are in accord on the Armenian question. They have agreed to do nothing.—*The Ledger, Philadelphia.*



MORE CUBAN REPORTS.

—*Times-Herald, Chicago.*

LETTERS AND ART.

A CHAT ABOUT LONGFELLOW, BY MR.
R. H. STODDARD.

IN a free-and-easy talk about Longfellow, contributed to the January *Lippincott's*, Mr. Richard Henry Stoddard sets out by telling us that he has known, more or less, most American poets who were worth knowing, beginning in his early years with youngsters of his own age—Taylor, Boker, Read, Stedman—and



RICHARD HENRY STODDARD.

he first met Read and Stedman. But his purpose is chiefly to talk about Longfellow, and from that part of his reminiscent paper we now quote:

"I had two or three good friends in Boston in the old far-away days when I began to write verse—the elder Ticknor, Whipple, Fields—and I scarcely ever made a summer visit to that delightful little city (I speak of the Boston of forty years ago, remember) without being asked to join in their outings to Concord, or Cambridge, or Nahant. I was in Boston on one of these fairy visits toward the close of the forties, and, happening to drop in at the Old Corner Bookstore, which was a noted landmark then, I found Fields and Whipple behind a green baize curtain facing a window on School Street (but was it School Street?) and was invited to go with them to Nahant to see Longfellow. Gratified, as I should have been, but timid, as became one whose spurs were still to win, I pleaded an imaginary engagement, but was overruled; so we strolled to the station, and took the cars for Nahant. Where Nahant was I had, and have, no idea, except that it was on the sea-shore, and that the house which the poet and his family occupied was on high ground, near the crest of a bluff, I should say, facing the waves and a long line of breakers. The outlook seaward was fine, and, what with the roar of the surf, and the cool fresh wind that blew shoreward, it was pleasant to be there. Longfellow was very courteous, frank, and friendly in his manner and conversation, and, as we talked together along the springy turf on the edge of the bluff, he let me talk about poetry and question him, Fields and Whipple getting behind us to give me an opportunity to do so unchecked. . . .

"Whether the reputation of Longfellow remains at the high-water mark to which it rose during the early part of his life I have no means of knowing, for once a poet is dead and gone those who were loudest in his praise in his lifetime begin to hark back and question the faith that was in them, and his right to exercise the spell to which they submitted. If the supremacy of Byron was disputed, as we know it was, before he died, the popular estimation of Longfellow may well have changed in the ten years that have elapsed since his death. To read him, as I fancy most of the younger generation of his countrymen do, by the light of to-day alone, is to read the letter and not the spirit of his verse, which belongs to an earlier period than this. To measure him by the same standards as Tennyson, Browning, and Swinburne is to measure him by standards which did not exist when he started on his poetic career, which was twelve or thirteen

years before Swinburne was born, and when Browning and Tennyson were thumbing their school-books. He should be read by the glimmering twilight of American literature in the twenties and thirties of the century, when Bryant was the only poet and Irving the only prose writer who had attained distinction among us."

Mr. Stoddard tells us that Longfellow began in his eighteenth year to write verse, which was published in *The United States Literary Gazette*, a weekly journal issued in Boston, and, he thinks, New York. Of this paper's noted contributors he says:

"Bryant's most notable contributions to *The Literary Gazette*, which began on April 1, 1824, and continued till March 1, 1825, were 'Rizpah,' 'The Old Man's Funeral,' 'The Rivulet,' 'March,' 'Monument Mountain,' 'Summer Wind,' 'After a Tempest,' 'Autumn Woods,' 'Hymn to the North Star,' and 'Song of the Stars.' We find in these early poems of his all, or nearly all, the elements in his later ones, his observation of and delight in nature, his sympathy with the poetic side of aboriginal life, and his habitual vein of serious reflection. There is not a word too much in them, nor a word too little; they are simple and compact, they are manly and mature. The contributions of Longfellow, which began on November 15, 1824, and ended on April 1, 1826, were immature, tentative, bookish, but undeniably promising. If they were imitative, the young poet was not conscious of the imitation, and the most that can fairly be said is that he was for the moment overshadowed by other poetic spirits—by Bryant when he wrote 'Woods in Winter,' 'An April Day,' 'Hymn of the Moravian Nuns,' and 'Sunrise on the Hills,' and by Willis when he wrote 'The Spirit of Poetry.'

"That a new poet was coming, if not already come, was the belief of the readers of Longfellow's verse in *The Literary Gazette*, who were better judges of the poetic outlook than we can be now. We can not compare it, as they did, with the effusions of his forgotten contemporaries; if we could, we would be convinced of his superiority to the best of them—to all of them, indeed, except Bryant. The literary condition of the country, which, if commonplace, was expectant, was favorable to the promise which was in him, and more than favorable to the promise which eight years later had ripened into performance, in his translation of the 'Coplas de Manrique.' . . .

Mr. Stoddard thinks that if the literary career of Longfellow had not been settled by the success of "Outre-Mer" and "Hyperion," and the certainty of his poetic powers confirmed by his translation therein, both were determined by "Voices of the Night," which was published in the same year as "Hyperion." To quote again:

"The reputation of no modern poet was ever so surely made by his first collection of verse as that of Longfellow by 'Voices of the Night.' He was welcomed at once by all poetical readers, who found qualities in him that they found in no other poet, and was accepted by most critical readers, who, if they were not entirely satisfied with him, were tardy in expressing their dissatisfaction, the causes of which demanded an examination of canons that were new to them. It would not do to measure him by the standards they applied to Bryant, or Willis, or Halleck; and to condemn 'A Psalm of Life,' 'The Beleaguered City,' and 'Midnight Mass for the Dying Year,' because they were unlike 'Thanatopsis,' 'The Widow of Nain,' and 'Marco Bozzaris,' would simply be to attain the wish of Dogberry. There were many good reasons why 'Voices of the Night' were so generally read and admired. They were all brief and intelligible, each illustrating a single theme or a single train of thought, in well-chosen, melodious words. The range within which they were confined, and which was that of every-day life and emotion, was familiar to their readers, who were not obliged to go outside of themselves and their own experience to discover or divine the meaning of the poet. The despondent were cheered by him; the suffering were consoled. But there were other reasons why 'Voices of the Night' were read and admired, and these were not so good. One of these reasons was a predominance of the commonplace in the selection of some of the subjects therein, and the way in which they were treated; another was an excess of imagery, rather studied than spontaneous; a third was a tendency to didactic statements which were neither novel nor impor-

tant. These blemishes, which are so apparent to us, were not perceived by the first readers of 'Voices of the Night,' or, if perceived by them, were considered beauties. The world of poetical readers, especially the world of American readers, was more impressed by didacticism fifty years ago than it is now, more tolerant of platitudes, more enamored of tropes, figures, and metaphors. 'Voices of the Night' indicated the quality of Longfellow as surely as 'Endymion' did the quality of Keats and 'Poems Chiefly Lyrical' that of Tennyson."

MYSTERIES OF MUSIC.

IN his second paper on "Music's Place in the Philosophy of the Beautiful" (*Werner's Magazine*), Mr. William Knight opens by the introduction of an argument that music can not be made to lend itself to the base or the evil feelings or passions in the same way that other arts, such as poetry and painting, may be used. He says that music may and often does occupy itself with the trivial, but it can not give voice to the corrupt; that none of the evil passions of humanity are capable of direct expression by music. Cruelty, for example, could not be portrayed by it, nor the malign, altho it may express terror and extreme agony.

After referring to the fact that composers seldom "put together" the elements which we subsequently analyze, but that by immediate and intuitive synthesis they reach "the one within the many," Mr. Knight says:

"In trying to reach a true theory of music it is impossible to ignore the science of acoustics; but it is possible at the same time to make the laws which regulate that science of too much importance in dealing with the practise of the art. While the phenomena of sound have a vital relation to music as a scientific structure, they do not concern it as one of the arts of expression, and still less as a source of pleasure, or a means of eliciting emotion. It is even possible that a specially minute knowledge of these phenomena would hinder, rather than help, the musician in his distinctive work; and it may be said in general that the esthetics of music begin where its physical science ends. It is well known that the power of musical composition, or the deft arrangement of melody and harmony, has often existed in inverse ratio to a knowledge of the physical properties of sound.

"In fact, the esthetic side of music is quite distinct from the scientific. A knowledge of the laws of acoustics, such as Helmholtz has given us, is, as we have just seen, not necessary to the musician, whether he be composer, or performer, or mere appreciative listener. To expect a genius like Beethoven or Wagner to understand the intricacies of science in reference to the phenomena of sound is as absurd as it would be to expect these men to be acquainted with the philosophy of the Vedas, or with medieval alchemy. Nevertheless, it must be remembered that every musical composition must conform both to the laws of acoustics and to the laws of the scale; while, that conformity granted, the musician may freely create as his genius leads him."

On the point of the structural beauty of music, Mr. Knight remarks:

"A thing to be noted—in which we also find parallel in the plastic arts—is that the intentional introduction of discord may lead to greater harmony when the discord is resolved. The 'concord of sweet sounds' delights us, just as symmetry of form or a harmonious arrangement of color does; but as seemingly incongruous shadows often combine in a picture to give the richest unity of effect, so the introductions of discords in music may be in pursuance of a plan which intentionally leads to a climax of harmony, in the final conquest of the discord; and out of discord the most perfect harmony, the harmony of opposites, may be evolved."

Of the difference between the major and minor keys—"the joy, the brightness, and the strength of the major, and the tenderness, the softness, and the melancholy of the minor"—Mr. Knight says:

"This difference is fundamental. It is an objective reality in the nature of things, not created by the musician, but existing independently of him. That each of the keys corresponds to a

special mood of the human spirit, or has an emotion to itself, as it were, may be an extravagance; but there is no doubt that there are particular moods of minds, aspects of feeling or of life, that can be adequately expressed only by particular kinds of music. If they are to be expressed at all, they demand embodiment in a special rhythmic form or key. So, also, to a certain extent with the varieties of time, from slow movements to quick ones, with manifold intermediate stages. Gradations of feeling may be expressed by these changes of time, as well as by a change of key; and by means of both, all the varieties of emotion, from calm repose to violent passion, from troubled doubt, unrest, suspense, and pain on the one hand, to rest, joy, triumph, or even ecstasy on the other, may be embodied and expressed."

We quote another paragraph:

"Schopenhauer's special theory of music, adopted by Wagner, comes out in the comparison he draws between it and the arts of painting, sculpture, and even poetry. The latter he regards as realistic arts, inasmuch as they employ the medium of visible phenomena, and have a point of departure in the apparent or phenomenal. Music lacks this realistic basis, since there is nothing in nature which can be its groundwork, or which yields it a point of departure; but it is just for this reason that the musician gets into more immediate *rappor* with the all-pervasive, underlying spirit of the universe. He 'muses, and the fire burns.' He falls into a trance, and he is borne into a region 'where time and space are not,' and where he finds a universal language, immeasurably transcending the provincial dialects of human speech. Thus the creative musical artist gets closer to existence and nearer to the core of things than any other artist does. The ideal is within him from the first, a subjective stream of ideality urging him on in the work of making it objective, or incarnating it in structures of melody and harmony. It is only in a trance of consciousness, however, when not disturbed by the intrusions of sense, that this creative activity is possible."

FORCE OF JAMES LANE ALLEN'S LITERARY WORK.

MR. ALLEN is spoken of by a contributor to *Harper's Weekly* as the writer who "annexed Kentucky to the domain of American letters when the new literary movement spread over the South a few years ago, and writers arose in the various States." But, altho the authors forming this remarkable group advanced into notice almost side by side as in a rank, says this writer, "they have not kept step since the common start—the rank has wavered and broken; some have stood still, some have fallen behind, and some have dropped out of sight." We extract from the article in question some pertinent paragraphs concerning the tone and force of Mr. Allen's work:

"Now that his work has become so widely known it is hard to realize how new it was at first. But when he entered upon the writing of a series of articles on 'The Blue-Grass Region,' which first made his literary reputation, there were no local models to guide him, and little or nothing in the way of published data to aid him. In order, therefore, to gather material he was compelled to have recourse to unusual sources of information, and found his best helps in old newspapers and in the clear memories of old men and old women. By such unique methods a mass of original material was collected and sifted with the conscientiousness that enters into all his work. Then, adding to this his own observations and knowledge of the modern environment, he finally succeeded in making a presentation, equally authentic and interesting, of a part of the State's soil and customs and people."

After pointing out the coloring of local truth which characterizes nearly all of Mr. Allen's writing, the article continues:

"But while thus rooted in Kentucky life and history these stories are all sent upward through some subtle power inherent in the author that lifts them above the commonplace, but not above the truth. It is this trait—which for lack of a better name may be called the quality of transfiguration—that gives to Mr. Allen's essentially realistic work its inseparably poetic aspect. And it is the two together, this transfiguring touch and this strict adherence to underlying reality, that makes his stories unlike

those of any other writer. Rarely if ever has there been such a union of realism and idealism, and humor and pathos, and the increasing prominence of nature still further distinguishes his most recent books. . . .

"And yet this manner of treatment has its disadvantages. It limits his audience; it takes his work out of the surface current of the day; it is quiet, reserved, and at ease; it makes no bid for passing notice; its repose sometimes conceals its strength, its lightness, its depth; it deals with states rather than with actions; its problems are spiritual, not physical; it faces always toward the higher and more difficult way of life. But, after all, these are the characteristics that unite to make it rare, and it is perhaps through these very disadvantages that it has won its success. And as the truth which he puts into his work is not merely local truth, but the essential truths of human nature, the broad note thus struck is not felt in Kentucky alone, but has met with response abroad, in Great Britain and Germany, and has been recognized everywhere, so does this double vision, this perception of the infinite within the finite, of the relation of the atom to the universe, magnify and ennoble the smallest detail of his finely finished work, that in the wreck of a bird's nest by a gust of wind he sees 'the wastage of the divine, the law of loss, but whose right to reign no creature, brute or human, ever acknowledges,' and in the life-everlasting, 'a low, sturdy weed, on the top of which small white blossoms open as still as stars of frost,' he finds an emblem of immortality."

MORE ABOUT GEORGE AUGUSTUS SALA.

THE English literary papers have given considerably more space to discussion of the character of Mr. Sala and the quality of his work than their attitude toward him during his lifetime promised on the event of his death. *The Speaker* says that he was a singular and notable figure, and one that was well worth studying; that "he was almost the last survivor of a great epoch in English literature—the epoch which was once adorned by Captain Shandon, and which has close affinities with Grub Street of dubious fame." The days of the Bohemia in which Sala dwelt are recalled and contrasted with his later life, when he "was the friend not merely of the most eminent men of letters, but of distinguished politicians, persons of high fashion, and princes of the blood," so that "when he went abroad Her Majesty's Ambassadors opened their doors to him; and no one could have seen him kissing the ring on the hand of a Cardinal without feeling that he was completely at home in courts." Yet it is said that even in those later and more prosperous times Sala was still essentially the Bohemian, and had all those longings for the life of a vagabond which the true Bohemian never loses. We quote from *The Speaker* as follows:

"Good spirits never seemed to fail him; and into whatsoever company he entered, he brought with him an atmosphere of genial lightheartedness that it was delightful to breathe. Intimate friendships in the rare sense of the word he never seemed to make. No man could boast of being his confidant; but friends of the ordinary sort, tho they might never find themselves admitted to the innermost chamber of his confidence, had abundant reason to be satisfied with what they got. His gifts in conversation were remarkable, if sometimes rather overpowering. A memory that seemed to be inexhaustible accompanied a loquacity that never tired, and he would pour forth anecdote after anecdote concerning all manner of men and things by the hour at a stretch. His love of knowledge was very real, and almost to his latest day he continued to be an omnivorous reader, pursuing facts in the most curious and intricate byways of literature. The most familiar picture of Sala that the present writer recalls represents him sitting in a chair at his club, with the newest numbers of *Notes and Queries* held close to his solitary eye, as he devoured its contents and made mental note of anything strange or out of the way that he might encounter.

"But reading was only a part of the education of this very remarkable man. He had learned more from what he had seen—defective and limited as his vision was in more respects than one—than from what he had read. That which distinguished him

from the great Bohemian men of letters of the past was the fact that he had not been content to dwell in Grub Street, nor even in Pall Mall. His restless spirit and his zeal in the interests of the great journal to which he was attached carried him far afield, and he was never so happy as when entering upon new scenes and meeting new faces. There was not a capital in Europe with which he had not something more than a speaking acquaintance; there was not a quarter of the world which he had not visited: there was hardly a man of eminence whom he did not know personally. . . .

"Driven by stress of circumstances into the calling of journalism, he gloried in his craft, and had a high sense of its dignity and importance. His fellow journalists may have smiled at some of his eccentricities, and may have affected to sneer at his redundant flow of superfluous words and irrelevant anecdote; but at heart they were all proud of him; and, probably, if the newspaper men of the United Kingdom had been polled, they would have returned George Augustus Sala by an overwhelming vote as the most distinguished member of their profession."

The Athenæum says that altho Mr. Sala's name is on the title-pages of fifty works of fiction, travel, and criticism, yet he modestly avowed himself unworthy to be styled a man of letters, and chiefly gloried in being known as a journalist. From this paper we quote:

"One of our weekly contemporaries made it a practise during many years to ridicule Mr. Sala's mode of writing, and *The Times* never noticed one of his many books till a few years before his death. The criticism and the neglect stung him to the quick, yet he gained more from the criticism than he knew or chose to acknowledge. His name was kept before the public; his books were asked for out of curiosity; and when it was found that his writings were readable, it was felt that he had been treated harshly, and he partly gained popularity owing to having been subjected to undue depreciation. He probably made more money by his books than either Matthew Arnold or Freeman, while he publicly boasted that his employers in the press treated him like a prince and paid him like an ambassador.

"He was the editor of several publications, the first being *Chat*, and the last being called by his name and established with his money; but none save *Temple Bar*, of which he was the first editor, has lived or deserved to live long.

"Mr. Sala's earlier years were spent in a struggle for bread. His later ones were somewhat spoilt by enjoying what he had won. He was undervalued at a time when encouragement was most precious, and he was overpraised when he might have benefited by judicious criticism. At banquets in the city he was a frequent and welcome guest and speaker. He knew the contents of many books; but he had never grasped the significance of literature as a whole, and few men of such general information would have failed more completely than he if called upon to discuss it in its wider aspects and relations, and in its character as an expression of the minds of nations."

As to "Art for Art's Sake."—"Art for art's sake, of course. For what else? and why not? But do those who make this phrase their shibboleth always reflect that its prohibitions cut two ways? If art is to be practised for its own sake alone, does it not exact from the artist that he shall use his highest and noblest powers in that practise? If the art that points a moral and adorns a tale is in so far forth not true art, what of the art that exists for the purpose of sensationalism and yellow-bookishness? Art is not to be moral and instructive, agreed—but neither shall it be immoral nor instructive in vice. Art deals only with beauty, and the higher the kind of beauty it shows us the better the art. The *fleurs du mal* are not the loveliest blossoms. Art for art's sake, the work for the work's sake, is the motto of every true artist, and he who follows it truly will do the noblest and purest work it is in him to do, and will shun the ugly and the degrading, not because to dwell upon them is a crime against morals, but because it is a crime against art. Art for art's sake means not merely that we are not to preach or to tell stories in our pictures, but that we are not to follow fads or catch at sensations, not to try for money or for notoriety; that we are to think not what is profitable or fashionable, but what is good. Practise it so, and, in the long run, even the Philistines will forgive us." —*Scribner's Magazine, January*.

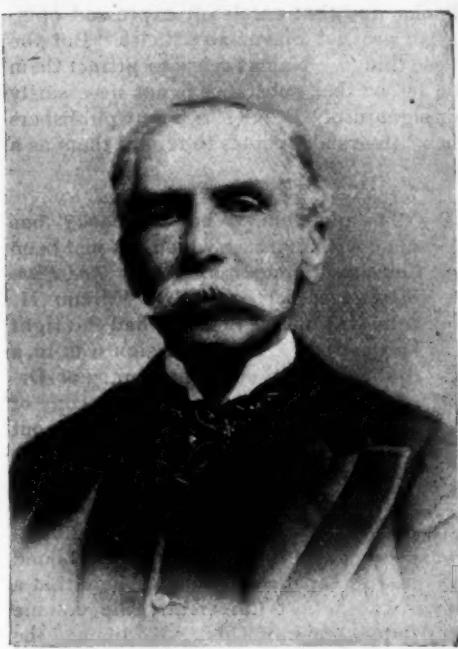
ALFRED AUSTIN, POET LAUREATE.

ON the last day of 1895 Queen Victoria appointed Alfred Austin Poet Laureate. This office has been vacant since the death of Tennyson. We take the following data from the *New York Tribune*:

"Alfred Austin is a poet, critic, novelist, and journalist. He was born at Headingley, near Leeds, May 30, 1835. His father

was a merchant and magistrate of the borough of Leeds, and his mother was the sister of Joseph Locke, the eminent civil engineer and M.P. for the borough of Honiton, of which he was lord of the manor. Both his parents being Roman Catholics, he was sent to Stonyhurst College and afterward to St. Mary's College, Oscott. From Oscott he took his degree at the University of London in 1853, and in 1857 he was called to the bar of the Inner Temple.

"The publication, altho anonymously, of a poem entitled



ALFRED AUSTIN, POET LAUREATE.

'Randolph' when he was eighteen showed the bent of his disposition. On the death of his father, in 1861, he quitted the Northern Circuit and went to Italy. His first acknowledged volume of verse, 'The Season: a Satire,' appeared in 1861. A third and revised edition of 'The Season' appeared in 1869. His other poetical productions are 'The Human Tragedy' (1862), republished in a amended form in 1876 and again finally revised in 1889; 'The Golden Age: a Satire,' 1871; 'Interludes,' 1872; 'Rome or Death,' 1873; 'Madonna's Child,' 1873; 'The Tower of Babel,' a drama, 1874; 'Leszko the Bastard: A Tale of Polish Grief,' 1877; 'Savonarola,' a tragedy, 1881; 'Soliloquies in Song,' 'At the Gate of the Convent,' 'Love's Widowhood and Other Poems,' 'Prince Lucifer,' and 'English Lyrics,' all published between 1881 and 1890. He has published three novels—'Five Years of It,' 1858; 'An Artist's Proof,' 1864, and 'Won By a Head,' 1866; also 'The Poetry of the Period,' reprinted from *Temple Bar*, 1870, and 'A Vindication of Lord Byron,' 1869, occasioned by Mrs. Stowe's article, 'The Story of Lord Byron's Life.'

"He has written much for *The Standard* and for *The Quarterly Review*. During the sittings of the Ecumenical Council of the Vatican, he represented *The Standard* at Rome, and he was a special correspondent of that journal at the headquarters of the King of Prussia in the Franco-German War. His political writings include 'Russia Before Europe,' 1876; 'Tory Horrors,' 1876, a reply to Mr. Gladstone's 'Bulgarian Horrors,' and 'England's Policy and Peril,' a letter to the Earl of Beaconsfield, 1877. In 1883, in conjunction with W. J. Courthope, he founded *The National Review*, and continued to edit that periodical till the summer of 1893. In 1892 Messrs. Macmillan issued a collected edition of his poems in six volumes, since which time they have published 'Fortunatus, the Pessimist,' and 'England's Darling, and Other Poems,' and a prose work entitled 'The Garden That I Love.'

Public opinion, at least in this country, seems to have largely favored the appointment of Swinburne as Poet Laureate, and a good deal of dissatisfaction at the Queen's choice is expressed.

The poet Stedman was seen by a *Tribune* reporter on New Year's day, to whom he spoke as follows of the appointment of Mr. Austin:

"I have fully shared in the opinion of professional writers, so freely expressed in England and America, that the office should

be tendered to Mr. Swinburne. In fact, I can hardly believe that the office has finally reached Mr. Austin without some official knowledge that neither Swinburne nor Morris would accept it. Having once printed a brief review of the new Laureate's poetry, I am free to say that his more ambitious efforts do not impress me, tho they are the work of a well-equipped and able man. But his later volumes, one of them dramatic, do contain some charming songs and lyrics.

"He is without doubt a vigorous and critical prose writer, of the polemic kind, as his bold and racy essays in *Temple Bar* on Tennyson and other contemporaries showed us years ago. They were collected in a book entitled, if I remember rightly, 'Poetry of the Period,' and were thoroughly iconoclastic. It is striking that he should now succeed the great Laureate whom he laid hands upon.

"Since we can not have Swinburne or Morris, or, as a courtly and exquisite minstrel, Austin Dobson, I suppose Mr. Austin will make a good substitute during what may be called an interregnum. Perhaps the touch of the laurel may inspire him to be much more than that.

"I am glad that a fairly respectable appointment has been made, rather than that the office should be allowed to lapse altogether. The appointment shows an official respect for English traditions. I am a very radical American, but if I were born in England I would cherish loyalty to her ivied institutions, certainly to those which transmit the reverence for poetry and learning."

RIGHT AND WRONG WAYS TO VIEW A PAINTING.

WE are assured by Mr. Horace R. Burdick, in *Modern Art*, that the prevalent notion that pictures and statues are made to be criticized is erroneous. Works of art, he says, are produced to be enjoyed, appreciated, sympathized with, and the proper attitude of the public in viewing pictures is that of a little child—humility and teachableness are necessary preliminaries to the enjoyment of artistic treats. Another common and serious mistake, he remarks, is the supposition that a fine picture must necessarily look like nature. In this connection he says:

"Truth to nature is not imitation of nature. The effort of the artist is to make an abridgment of nature, portraying only such portions of the truth as shall best serve to express the sentiment he desires to convey, and the picture is successful if it conveys to some sympathetic soul that wave of emotion which the truth aroused in the soul of the artist. Some people suppose that if the time ever comes when photographs shall be taken in natural colors the artist's occupation will be gone. On the contrary, such a discovery would only prove an educator to the public, teaching them the better to appreciate the efforts of the artistic nature to express the vision of beauty it has beheld. Could any photograph of a model give one the feeling that is conveyed by Michael Angelo's fresco of Adam, or his statue of Moses? It is the expression of nature and not nature itself that the artist strives to reproduce. As Emerson says, 'It should be the aim of the landscape painter to paint the sunshine of sunshine and the gloom of gloom.' The highest product of nature is the human mind, and any art that conveys to another the vision that entrances the artist is in the highest sense true to nature, tho it may not resemble in form or texture any object with which we are familiar. The charm of the paintings of Constable, Turner, and Corot does not lie in any superficial resemblance to the nature that suggested them, but in the successful expression of their individual emotions in the presence of nature."

Mr. Burdick suggests that the greatness of an artist is shown quite as much in what he leaves out as in what he puts in a picture, and states that the late George Fuller, who was always emphatic in the declaration that unity of effect could only be attained through "sacrifice," has been known to spend three hours in painting out irrelevant facts which he had painted into his picture in a two-hours' sitting of his model. We quote further:

"Many people, when looking at pictures, feel disturbed if they are not able to appreciate or enjoy them, particularly if the pic-

tures are by artists of wide celebrity. They feel that their failure to sympathize with these works of acknowledged genius is an indication of a lack of perception on their part, or of a lack of power on the part of the artist. They feel that if the pictures are really great they are in duty bound to admire them. This is another common mistake. There is no duty in the matter whatever. If the picture does not appeal to you it was not painted for you. It was painted for those in whom it awakened enthusiasm and feeling; pass it by, but do not think that you must criticize it. . . .

"It is a common error of those in the student period of development to exaggerate the importance of technique in painting. Some of the severest critics overheard in our exhibition galleries are the art students who frequent them, seemingly for no other purpose than to find fault. The clever ones talk loudly of pursuing 'art for art's sake,' when their work shows that they are merely painting for painting's sake. The painting whose chief merit is a technical one is not art, but skilled labor, and the attainment of a high degree of manual dexterity is possible to one who has not the faintest glimmer of inspiration. Art for art's sake is well; but paint for paint's sake is quite a different matter."

AS TO "THE DOLLAR" IN LITERATURE.

CONTINUATION of debate of the question of literary commercialism—writing for money chiefly—makes evident the gravity of the topic. *The Home Journal* says that, without acquitting publishers and editors of all blame in the matter, it may be argued that after all the writers are the real and chief offenders. It says, in substance, that while publishers and editors are generally blamed for tempting, corrupting, and demoralizing authors by offers of cash and by pressing demands for quantity instead of quality, the author who permits himself to be thus successfully tempted is the real culprit. The editor says, in this connection, that it is important to remember that, strong as the demoralizing tendencies are, the authors who have proved loyal to the higher ideals are by no means so few in number as we are prone to think. As for the publishers, he goes on to say, their punishment is neither prompt nor direct, but they do not altogether escape; that not only do the mercantile methods and watchwords adopted by them act as a boomerang, by making authors more greedy and exacting, as well as by diminishing the public demand for the wares turned out in haste, but in more important ways are they compelled to suffer from the effects of their policy. We quote as follows from the article:

"It is absolutely useless for publishers of books and magazines to attempt to compete with the daily newspapers. Defeat is inevitable for them. The more desperate their efforts to be up-to-date and sensational, the more impossible is their success. Care, thoughtfulness, elaborateness, comprehensiveness, and thoroughness are not expected from daily journals, and much is forgiven them. In books and magazines these qualities are essential. The reader who purchases a book or magazine, and finds nothing more and nothing better in it than he has already seen in his daily paper, feels that he has been imposed upon. To a book and magazine essay he looks both for quantity and quality. There is no room, no demand, for a book or magazine essay that merely reiterates the opinions expressed in daily journalism. Yet this is precisely what many of our books and magazines are—stale, flat, and unprofitable repetitions of newspaper editorials and despatches. No wonder the demand for them is said to be decreasing, and prices have to be lowered to ridiculous figures. No wonder publishers are printing old and standard works, and hesitating to touch the productions of new writers.

"Take any case or event more or less recent, and the statements just made will easily be verified. Let anything occur, and for days and weeks the wide-awake press will be full of 'stories,' comments, interviews, letters, and special articles, by prominent men, treating the matter from all possible points of view. The opinions expressed are superficial; the information given is not entirely accurate or trustworthy; and the intelligent reader, if he is really interested in the subject, is ready to welcome a fair, careful, accurate review of it in the periodical which is free from the conditions imposed on daily journalism. If he does not obtain it,

he sees no use for the magazine. But how can he obtain it when the magazine editor is equally anxious to deal *promptly* with the subject, and have an article about it from some prominent man, who is generally busy and glad to get rid of the insistent editor by 'dashing off' something which will answer the primary, if not the only, purpose in view—that of having a timely topic on the cover and a great name to accompany it?

"The passion for 'names' and 'timely topics' has led many publishers almost to forget that collections of sermons or lectures do not always constitute books, and that carelessly expressed opinions in indifferent English are not magazine articles. But the readers do not forget these things. Names cease to attract them as soon as they learn the lesson that substance is not necessarily guaranteed by caption or signature. Besides, as many publishers are after the same 'names,' the reader comes to regard them as a nuisance."

What is a Book?—"The question, 'What is a book?' has been before the Pennsylvania courts in a case which has just been decided by the Orphans' Court of Philadelphia," says *The Publishers' Weekly*, New York, December 15. "Dr. William H. Webb, as the legatee under the will of Dr. Beecher, had the right 'to select such books as he desired.' This provision was in a clause of the will relating to the disposition of the library of Dr. Beecher. Dr. Webb chose from the library a manuscript copy of a work which was formerly rare. The book had been written out by Dr. Beecher and bound. The parents of the deceased man held that the volume was not a 'book' belonging to the library. The auditing judge declared that the manuscript was no more 'a book' than the album containing family photographs or the visiting list, in which he kept the names of his patients, or the bound volumes of letter-press copies of his papers. He also held that a 'book' as popularly known was almost universally the volume which had not only been printed but published. He likened the manuscript to an original work which had been written out with view to securing a copyright, but which had not been printed or published. The legatee could not lay claim to such a work. Judge Ashman has now decided that the opinion of the auditing judge was incorrect, and that as the copy was in the possession of the deceased man and presumably in his library, it might be numbered among the works from which the legatee had the right to make a selection. The arguments in the case showed that both of the lawyers engaged had made careful research as to the meaning of the word 'book.' It was shown that in the Bible and other places it is used to include a roll of manuscript, and this had an effect on the decision, altho as the auditing judge said, 'the will was not written before or immediately after the beginning of the Christian era, and its descriptive terms must receive the meaning which is in effect to-day.'"

A Tribute to Scotch Writers.—"The bright spot in contemporary fiction is the little group of Scotch writers who have caught their artistic inspiration from Stevenson. Barrie, Crockett, and Watson ('Ian Maclaren') are alike in these points. They are intensely Scotch and at the same time broadly human. They are true realists, giving us close and vivid studies of actual life. They are true romanticists, perceiving the incident, the adventure, the heroism, which to some dull dogs who call themselves 'veritists' do not exist, but with which, to men of genius, actual life is throbbing. They recognize the reality of religion as a power in the lives of men. They find love—pure love, the love of honest, manly men for sweet, true women—sufficiently interesting and exciting. They thus far have not felt it necessary to spice their stories with the morbid anatomy of passion. There is the sweet strong breath of the heather in their pages. Final, indispensable test of success in the novelist, they interest, they amuse, they touch the heart, they make you laugh and cry. You do not like to lay the book down as long as there is a page left unread; and you have no exasperated feeling of having been cheated into a study of morbid social conditions or malodorous moral problems, under pretense of a novel. Since Dickens and Thackeray died, these things could be said in the same sense of no writers but these same Scotchmen."—*The Kingdom*.

If we may judge from four out of five of the most recent volumes of American poetry, the dominant spirit of American verse of the present day is decidedly plaintive, if not absolutely dreary. Our modern poets have certainly not "read, marked, learned, and inwardly digested" the words of Sappho; "For lamentation may not be in a poet's house. Such things befit not us."—*The Literary World*.

SCIENCE.

ELECTROPLATING A SHIP'S HULL.

N EARLY a year ago (LITERARY DIGEST, February 2, 1895) we chronicled an interesting experiment, having for its object the electroplating of a vessel's hull. What fruits this experiment has borne may be seen from the following paragraphs and the accompanying illustrations, which are from *The Electrical World*, November 20:

"It is well known that unless an ocean-going vessel is plated with copper below its water line, barnacles and other animal and vegetable matter will accumulate on the wetted surface and very considerably increase its resistance, thereby reducing the speed of the ship. Moreover, if the vessel be of iron or steel, a corrosive action takes place which shortens the life of the hull. The above growths often extend to a thickness of two inches or more, and on the large ocean-liners as much as 23 tons are not infrequently removed at one docking, and the cost of docking for this purpose and cleaning often exceeds \$12,000. The desirability of a method of

coppering a vessel by which the copper can be applied directly to the steel shell, without the interposition of a wooden sheathing, is therefore evident.

"A solution of this problem is presented by a company which has erected a plant at Jersey City, and consists in an electrolytic method of depositing copper on the plates, which coating adheres so firmly as to make its removal a most difficult matter; in fact it is claimed that the copper becomes practically a part of the steel plate when the process is complete. The copper is applied to the completed vessel and not to the separate plates, and hence exist-



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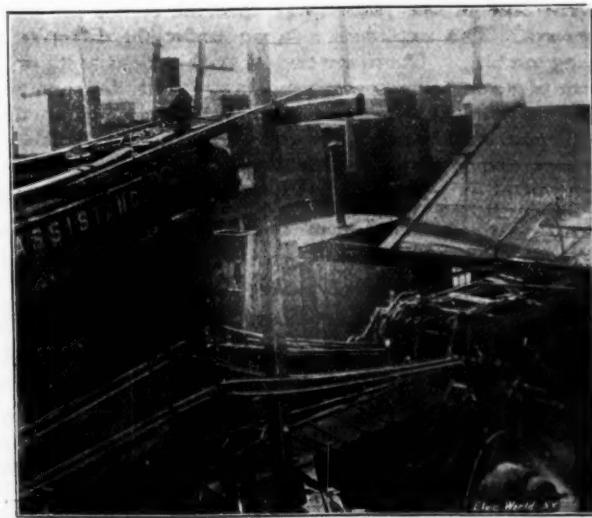


FIG. 2.

ing vessels may take advantage of this method to save dockage. Nor is the privilege confined to steel vessels alone; for wooden vessels may be coppered by this method by first applying plum-bago to their sides.

"To prepare the sides of a steel vessel for receiving its coat of

copper, shallow baths are built, which are rectangular in shape and open on one side. These baths are made water-tight by means of a coating of tar, and are provided on their edges with heavy soft-rubber gaskets. In the bottom of the bath are two pipes, through which the electrolyte is circulated. The bath is held up against the side of the vessel by poles, as shown in Fig. 1. It is first filled with a pickling mixture composed of dilute sulfuric acid, and this remains in contact with the plate about twelve hours, after which it is removed and the plate scoured with sand and soda.

"If a sulfate bath should now be applied to this place a coating would be deposited, it is true, but due to the free acid of the mixture the coating would readily peel off. To avoid this, a preliminary coating is deposited, using a cyanid instead of sulfate of copper. About twelve hours suffices to deposit this preliminary coating. Copper electrodes are placed in the bath and connected to the positive terminal of the dynamos, which completely surrounds the boat and is insulated from it. The negative terminal of the dynamo is firmly connected to the plating of the boat itself. . . .

"The sulfate bath is applied for forty-eight hours, and the coating allowed to reach a thickness of three thirty-seconds to one eighth of an inch. The conditions are such that any number of baths may be applied to the vessel, and, therefore, the process is continuous, and the actual time of plating does not make so much difference. The present method is to run two large mains around the boat to convey the electrolyte, one a feeder and the other a return. Each bath taps on these mains from its two pipes, and a small steam-pump pumps the sulfate of copper through the pipes and thence to a reservoir, only to be pumped over again. Thus the baths are kept continually agitated. At the forward end of

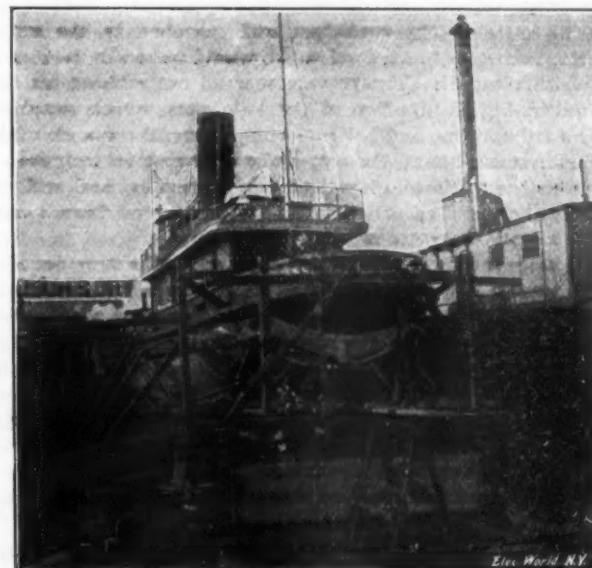


FIG. 3.

the boat a stand-pipe is erected, to maintain an approximately constant pressure to the mains. . . .

"At present work is being done on a small tugboat, the plating of which is nearly completed. About five tons of copper will have been deposited when the work is completed. The plant consists of four dynamos of ten horse-power each. . . . The copper feeders, as before stated, completely surround the boat and are very massive, as may be seen from Fig. 2. Figs. 2 and 3 show the bow and stern of the boat respectively, and incidentally show several tanks or baths and their manner of application. The propeller and rudder are electroplated in separate baths of their own, the latter being shown in Fig. 3."

The cuts used herewith are reproduced by courtesy of *The Electrical World*.

"THE appointment of amateurs and unscientific persons to positions in scientific bodies often has ludicrous results," remarks *The American Naturalist*. "The Academy of Science discussed an ancient bone dredged up in salt water. It was perforated with fossæ in series, and it was concluded that it was a mouth bone of a fossil fish. It turned out to be the head of an ancient tooth-brush. An exhibition of foot-tracks on ancient rocks before the same Academy brought to his feet a dancing-master, who illustrated the formation of the impressions terpsichorean fashion."

EXPERIMENTS ON COMPRESSED FOODS.

IT is often desirable to have as much nutriment as possible compressed into a very small space. This need makes itself felt especially in military operations where the necessity of transporting food for an army at great speed over a rough country often makes serious trouble. Much inventive ingenuity has therefore been spent on the problem of compressed foods, and with excellent results. Some of the most striking of these are well set forth in the following paragraphs, which we quote from an article in the *Detroit Free Press* (December 16) describing recent experiments in the commissary department of our own army:

"It was Berthallot, the French scientist, who first made the prophecy that in the future man would subsist upon drugs in small doses, discarding the time-honored habit of filling his stomach several times daily with many pounds of animal, vegetable, and mineral matter in their natural bulk.

"By experiments being made in the United States army it is proven that such economy of time and space may now be accomplished in cases of emergency, if not in the long run. . . .

"Major C. A. Woodruff, United States army, of Washington, assistant to the commissary-general of subsistence, is directing many interesting experiments along these lines. This work is being done preparatory to the adoption of an emergency ration for our soldiers. Within a few days Major Woodruff has been examining numerous samples of new compact foods made from the kola nut. . . .

"An experiment with the kola was lately made at Fort Snelling, Minn. A corporal and a private were detailed to start out in the morning on a march of twenty-five miles in the hot sun. The corporal ate a hearty breakfast and marched in the ordinary manner, taking as much food as he would naturally receive from the military larder. The private started out without his breakfast and took with him five of the kola nuts, which supplied his entire food for the day. Upon completing the march within a little over seven hours, the corporal was almost entirely overcome by the heat, was thoroughly tired out physically, and stiff in the joints. The private, altho having just recovered from sickness, said he never felt better in his life.

"But aside from the task of developing such a drug for a stimulant, it is the purpose of Major Woodruff to adopt a compressed food to have the permanent benefits of a square meal, while at the same time occupying economical space and weighing but little. The kola or coca preparations, it is thought, will never fill this need. Their functions would be merely to suspend hunger. After a fast under their influence the body would require as much food to supply the long deficiency as would otherwise have been naturally partaken of.

"The major has just received a report describing the emergency rations of all foreign armies which have so far adopted them. . . .

"In the French army is used a compressed vegetable preparation consisting of potatoes and peptonized meat, predigested according to the Koch process. Each soldier is given four small packages of this composition, each containing eight rations, the cost being a penny a ration. A two days' ration for the French soldier consists of hard bread, rice, salt, sugar, coffee, preserved meat and condensed soup, weighing in all a little over four pounds and a half.

"The British war office has adopted a compressed vegetable preparation to be used with Chicago compressed beef as an emergency ration. A new emergency ration now in the experimental stage in England is a package about the size of an ordinary cartridge box, to be strapped to the belt. Each of these contains in a compact form sufficient food to keep the most robust soldier in fighting trim for twenty-four hours. The contents can be made into a square meal in a moment at a brookside. The constituents are soup, milk, and sugar, in a dry state. Cocoa, milk, and sugar are packed in similar boxes.

"The Australian soldier carries an emergency ration weighing a little over a pound and a half. This contains compressed biscuit, preserved meat and soup, salt, and tobacco.

"The 'iron ration' of the German army, to be used only in extreme cases, consists of biscuit, meat, rice, coffee, and salt, packed in aluminum capsules and weighing in all four and one-fourth pounds. The German army formerly manufactured for

itself a similar iron ration by compressing a mixture of pea-meal, fat, and bacon into sausages."

Among the rations of this sort that are being experimented upon in our army are, we are told, tablets of soup like large caramels, a heavy cracker of pure wheat, cartridges of beef and pea-meal, bread tablets which swell into a spongy mass when dampened, and, finally, compressed coffee and tea, regarding which last the article speaks as follows:

"Compressed tea is not only found to be economical on account of weight and size, but because the pressure breaks up the vegetable cells. The whole strength of the compressed article will saturate water after boiling but five minutes. Crude tea must be boiled five hours before its entire strength is given out.

"With the advent of compact coffee and tea may come the banishment of sugar. In the German army no sugar is served as a ration. However, the Yankee soldier must have his sweet tooth gratified. Saccharin, the substance derived from coal-tar, is found to be five hundred times sweeter than sugar, and thus by its use 500 per cent. of weight would be saved in transportation. Saccharin is very often combined with tea and coffee in tablet form, as is also milk. Hence to obtain a cup of either of these beverages the soldier need simply add hot water and he will find it ready to be swallowed."

IS MARS INHABITED?

THIS question, which has rather fallen into abeyance of late, has been revived by Mr. Percival Lowell's remarkable book entitled "Mars" (Boston, 1895), in which he presents in a compact form the substance of articles already noticed from time to time in the *THE LITERARY DIGEST*. These set forth the results of a special study of Mars made by Mr. Lowell at Flagstaff, Ariz., during the last opposition of the planet, at an observatory put up for the purpose of getting as clear air as practicable. The opinions of Mr. Lowell have not met with the assent of the majority of astronomers, but they are set forth in such a charming and lucid manner as to stand as a model for all future writing on astronomical subjects.

The most important, the most interesting, and at the same time the most disputed portion of Mr. Lowell's work is that which deals with the so-called "canals." After describing these strange dark lines on the planet's surface and their disappearance and reappearance with the change of season, he writes as follows:

"To account for these phenomena, the explanation that at once suggests itself is, that a direct transference of water takes place over the face of the planet, and that the canals are so many waterways. This explanation labors under the difficulty of explaining nothing. There are two other objections to it: an insufficiency of water and a superabundance of time, for some months elapsed between the apparent departure of the water from the pole and its apparent advent in the equatorial regions; furthermore, each canal did not darken all at once, but gradually. We must therefore seek some explanation which accounts for this delay."

This explanation Mr. Lowell finds in the theory that what has usually been taken to be water on the planet's surface is really vegetation. The waxing and waning blue-green "seas" are areas covered with growth in the wet season and bare in the dry season, while the "canals" are lines of vegetation marking irrigation channels. Says the astronomer:

"That what we see is not the canal proper, but the line of land it irrigates, dispenses incidentally of the difficulty of conceiving a canal several miles wide. On the other hand, a narrow, fertilized strip of country is what we should expect to find; for, as we have seen, the general physical condition of the planet leads us to the conception, not of canals constructed for waterways—like our Suez Canal—but of canals dug for irrigation purposes. We can not, of course, be sure that such is their character, appearances being often highly deceitful; we can only say that, so far, the supposition best explains what we see."

This theory has been ingeniously and quite completely worked

out to account for nearly all the strange appearances of the planet's surface. Of the curious doubling of the channels, however, which occurs at certain seasons, Mr. Lowell has no explanation to offer, tho he is sure that those astronomers are wrong who consider it merely an optical phenomenon. Says he:

"Exactly what takes place . . . in this curious process of doubling, I can not pretend to say. It has been suggested that a progressive ripening of vegetation from the center to the edges might cause a broad swath of green to become seemingly two. There are facts, however, that do not tally with this view. . . . Indeed, we are here very much in the dark. . . . Perhaps we may learn considerably more about it at the next opposition. . . . I feel, however, tolerably sure that the phenomenon is not only seasonal but vegetal."

Of course, if the canals are artificial, the planet must be inhabited, and Mr. Lowell firmly believes this to be the case. The concluding chapter of his book contains interesting speculations about our Martian neighbors. Since Mars is older than the earth, its evolution must be further advanced, and the life on its surface must be in a higher stage than ours. Of this, Mr. Lowell says:

"From the little we can see, such appears to be the case. The evidence of handicraft, if such it be, points to a highly intelligent mind behind it. Irrigation, unscientifically conducted, would not give us such truly wonderful mathematical fitness in the several parts to the whole as we there behold. A mind of no mean order would seem to have presided over the system we see—a mind certainly of considerably more comprehensiveness than that which presides over the various departments of our own public works. . . . Certainly what we see hints at the existence of beings who are in advance of, not behind, us in the journey of life."

But we must be careful, the author goes on to say, not to draw deductions from our own case regarding the nature of the Martian population. He says:

"To talk of Martian beings is not to mean Martian men. Just as the probabilities point to the one, so do they point away from the other. Even on this earth man is of the nature of an accident. He is the survival of by no means the highest physical organism. He is not even a high form of mammal. Mind has been his making. For aught we can see, some lizard or batrachian might just as well have popped into his place early in the race, and been now the dominant creature of this earth. . . . Amid the surroundings that exist on Mars, surroundings so different from our own, we may be practically sure other organisms have been evolved of which we have no cognizance. What manner of beings they may be, we lack the data even to conceive."

As may be imagined such sensational speculations as these have stirred up conservative astronomers on all sides, and sniffs of skepticism as well as words of protest are becoming frequent. Of the general result, an idea may be formed from the following paragraphs, which we quote from René Bache's Washington letter to the Boston *Evening Transcript*, December 14:

"Astronomers are jumping just now upon Mr. Percival Lowell, of Boston, on account of his announcement respecting his recent observations of Mars. These observations were conducted through a powerful telescope at Flagstaff, Ariz. Owing to the extraordinary clearness of the atmosphere in that region, he was able to see with distinctness the dark bands of the planet, which Schiaparelli, the Italian sky-searcher, believes to be canals. But Mr. Lowell is inclined to think that the bands may be strips of cultivated vegetation. The people of Mars, presumably, are much bigger than the earth's inhabitants, and their standing crops may be gigantic. Nothing forbids the imagining of Martian cornstalks one hundred feet in height, and beans and peas of corresponding size. Fields of such Brobdignagian vegetables would assuredly be visible from our point of view, and their growing and the reaping of them would account for the way in which the bands referred to become more distinct and fade again periodically."

In the course of his letter Mr. Bache gives another view of the "canals," which we quote in closing because it approximates a

little more nearly than Mr. Lowell's to the opinions generally entertained by astronomers regarding them. It is as follows:

"It may be concluded, therefore, that the canals are such in fact and not only in name. The whole system was formed presumably by geological agencies and has been slowly elaborated in the course of centuries. Schiaparelli says that it is not necessary to suppose that the canals are the work of intelligent beings. Notwithstanding their almost geometrical appearance, it is altogether likely that they were produced in the process of the evolution of the planet, just as on the earth we have the English Channel and the channel of Mozambique. Perhaps if animals and plants exist on Mars they depend for life mainly upon the water-supply conveyed over the continental surfaces by these canals."

SPEED OF TRAINS AS AFFECTED BY THE REVOLUTION OF THE EARTH.

IT is as far from Buffalo to New York as it is from New York to Buffalo, yet, if we are to believe the reasoning of Mr. Alexander Hogg, a correspondent of *The Railway Gazette*, the railway run can be made more easily in the former direction because, the speed of the eastward moving train being added to that of the rotating earth, the reduction of weight due to centrifugal force is greater. We quote such portions of Mr. Hogg's letter as do not involve difficult mathematics:

"In 1891 the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad ran a train 436½ miles in 425 minutes and 42 seconds, or an average of 61½ miles per hour. The weight of this train was 460,000 pounds. The same company on September 11, this year, made the remarkable run of the same 436½ miles in 407½ minutes; this was an average of 64.26 miles per hour.

"The New York Central, in starting both times from New York city, unnecessarily retarded its own speed. From Albany to Buffalo, due west, the train encountered not only the prevailing west wind, but the force of the earth's revolution eastward.

"Owing to the diurnal rotation of the earth, bodies at the equator press toward the earth with $\frac{2}{3}$ of the pressure they would were the earth deprived of its rotation. If, therefore, the rotation of the earth could be accelerated until it took only $\frac{1}{2}$ of the present sidereal day to make a complete turn or revolution, the centrifugal tendency would be increased (17)² fold; that is, it would be 289 times as great as now, and bodies at the equator would have no pressure downward, or, as we say, would weigh nothing. This rate of revolution would not be sufficient to deprive bodies anywhere else of their entire weight."

"Now let us apply this to railroad trains. A train running east, at the equator, would be lightened as compared with the weight on a still earth. . . . If running due west, the result would be [less]. And the difference of weight between the same train, running east and west with the same velocity, would be [a certain] fraction of its total absolute pressure. Example: Taking a train, running, say, 70 feet per second, or nearly 48 miles per hour, this fraction would not be far from $\frac{1}{1600}$ part; if running 60 miles per hour, it would be $\frac{1}{1280}$ part, and if running 100 miles per hour, or 147 feet per second, it would be the $\frac{1}{720}$ part, nearly; and it would be greater and greater as the speed is increased, and still greater as both speed and weight of the train are increased. The train of the New York Central was 337 feet long and weighed 565,000 pounds.

"This calculation, it will be observed, as said, will be true for the equator. The New York Central train ran from Albany to Buffalo upon about the 42d parallel of latitude, and . . . therefore, this calculation should be corrected for this latitude, and would be about $\frac{1}{16}$ as great."

Other correspondents agree with Mr. Hogg in principle, tho not accepting all his mathematics. One of them ends his letter with the following rather jocose suggestion:

"It is well known that when the moon is above us it draws movable objects away from the earth, and when it is on the opposite side of the earth it draws the earth away from movable objects here, thereby causing the tides. It might be well to suggest to the New York Central officers that, as the tides travel from east to west, they may perhaps offset the disadvantages

under Mr. Hogg's theory by starting when the position of the moon is propitious, and, as they would 'keep in the tide,' while going west, they may still be able to make fast time going west, even if the engineers, or indeed the engines themselves, learn of disadvantages of centrifugal force when they are trying to make Buffalo."

PHOTOGRAPHING IMPRESSIONS IN THE EYE.

WE used to hear a good deal of the pictures found on the retinas of dead men's eyes, generally in connection with the detection of a murderer by the photographing of his features on the retina of his victim. These stories are now regarded as apocryphal, tho' belief in their possible truth was revived by the theory that color-vision is a result of an actual chemical change in the retina similar to that effected by light on a sensitized plate in photography. However this may be, we are now told that an Englishman has lately succeeded in photographing from his own eyes the images of objects that had disappeared from view, showing that the effect of the image on the retina persists longer than the sensation to which it gives rise and is of such a nature that it can be photographed. An account of the experiment, with comments, is quoted below from *The British Medical Journal* (London, December 21):

"An article of much interest, by Mr. W. Inglis Rogers, appeared in *The Amateur Photographer* of November 22, 1895, under the startling heading 'Psychography or Photography without a Camera. The Dawn of a New Science.' Altho' written in a style which savors more of cheap sensation than science, with a profusion of italics and capitals, the article is one which deserves careful study, and is in many respects suggestive. The essential part of it is the record of experiments by the author, the first more or less accidental, the succeeding two premeditated and deliberate. By psychography, the writer means an impression upon a sensitive plate of an image formed upon the human retina and thence projected on to the gelatin surface. His endeavors to supply a theory which will explain the phenomena he has observed have led him beyond his depth in the sea of cerebral physiology and chemistry. This portion of the article is, however, of minor importance. The record of the experiments is briefly as follows: The first deliberate experiment was performed in his own 'dark room,' and without assistance; the next took place at the house of a friend, a medical man, and in the presence and with the help of the medical man and two other gentlemen. A small object, in one case a shilling, in the other a postage-stamp, was placed in a good light before the writer, who gazed fixedly at it for one minute; the light was then shut off, and the test object replaced by a rapid photographic plate, at which the author looked steadily for a period (in the second experiment) of twenty minutes, concentrating his thoughts meanwhile wholly upon the image of the object he had been previously fixing. During the substitution of the plate for the last object the observer's eyes were closed. The plate was then developed in the ordinary way, and reproductions of the psychograms are given in the journal. In the first case, in which a shilling was the test object, the print shows an ill-defined circle on the plate, and in the second, when a postage-stamp was employed (and a larger plate used than before) 'two impressions were obtained, one from each eye, and at respectively the same distance from each other as the eyes.' These impressions (in the reproduction) bear a distinct resemblance to a postage-stamp; more than this we can not at present admit. These experiments, or similar experiments, can be carried out by any one with a little assistance. The subject is one which merits most careful and thorough investigation, and by such research alone can we determine whether or no Mr. Rogers's sanguine expectations in regard to his discovery are likely to be realized. When his observations have been confirmed it will be time enough to formulate an hypothesis in explanation of the phenomena described by him. Those who are interested in the subject from the psychological, physiological, or photographic side should read Mr. Rogers's account of his experiments, the *bona fide* character of which has been vouched for by the three gentlemen who witnessed them."

Immunity against Animal Poisons.—"Calmette, of Saigon, Cochin China," says *Modern Medicine*, November, "reports that he has been able to render animals immune against venomous snakes by repeated vaccination. He has also been able to render the serum of rabbits curative as well as preventive by vaccination of the animals with venom every two or three days for four or five weeks, beginning with one twentieth of a fatal dose. He was, by this method, enabled to immunize rabbits against a quantity of poison capable of killing eighty rabbits or five dogs. Five drops of the serum of such a rabbit neutralize the toxicity of one milligram of venom. Serum thus prepared may be used for curative inoculations. In vaccinated animals, the injection of the poison produces a great increase of white blood-corpuses, while in non-vaccinated animals, the opposite result is observed. This indicates that the white blood-corpuses must exercise an important function in disinfecting the body against poisons of this character. The immunity of the ichneumon was found to be due to the natural antitoxic power of its serum. He also found that animals, when immune against snake poisons, are also immune against many other poisons. The same has also been found true of animals vaccinated against erysipelas and rabies, who were sometimes found able to resist the poison of snakes. It is an interesting question whether further investigation may not reveal some antitoxic serum which will be capable of producing immunity against all animal poisons, altho' such a theory seems to be too Utopian to be practicable."

A French Submarine Boat.—*L'Energie Electrique*, December 1, contains an illustrated description of the submarine boat *Goubet* which has just been completed, and with which experiments were made in Paris. A brief description is given in *The Electrical World*, New York, as follows: "It is shaped somewhat like a cigar, but is pointed equally at both ends; it is 26 feet long, about 12 feet in width, and is made of gun-metal. Access to it is made by means of a manhole at the top, and which can be hermetically sealed; the weight is 10 tons, and it is calculated to resist the water-pressure at a depth of 160 fathoms. There is room in it for one officer and one or two sailors; the air is stored in steel cylinders, under pressure, and the vitiated air is exhausted by means of pumps; to make it sink water is admitted to chambers provided for that purpose. The motor power is a battery of 56 cells of accumulators, weighing about 1 ton, and giving 20 amperes at 90 volts for 14 hours; the propeller makes 250 revolutions, and the steering is done by altering the direction of the screw; in case of accident a weight carried at the bottom can be detached, and the boat then immediately rises to the surface."

Electric Wires Killing Trees.—"In France," says *Cosmos*, "great care is taken in locating the wires that carry high-tension electric currents, whether used for light or for power, but in America the thing is done more simply. No one bothers himself about what is to be found at the side of the wire, and it passes among the branches of trees, and across thickets, unconscious of the damage that it may do. Now in many towns it has been remarked that the trees crossed by the current dwindle and die. It has also been observed that the death of these trees invariably follows the rainy season; the leaves, being then soaked with moisture, become good conductors, and lead the current down into the tree from the wire. The wires, to be sure, have been insulated, but the protective layer has been quickly destroyed by the friction of the branches and the line becomes bare, producing thus results that it would have been well to avoid. And the electricity is the only thing that can be accused of this. It suffices, to convince one's self, to compare the condition of the trees traversed by the wires with that of neighboring trees. It has often been noticed that in a storm all the trees through which wires pass die in a few hours, while the surrounding ones are not touched. This is a very serious source of complaint, and causes some lawsuits."—Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.

PROF. E. C. PICKERING announces the discovery, by means of photography, of a new variable star of the Algol type. The change in brightness appears to be rapid and the range of variation to be large, exceeding two magnitudes.

THE RELIGIOUS WORLD.

SIGNS OF A RETURN TO FAITH.

THERE runs through the religious literature of the present day a bright thread of hope in opposition to the negative tendencies which have been characterized by the term "agnostic." Prof. A. C. Armstrong, writing for *The Methodist Review* (January), points out that on the continent and in Britain a striking series of deliverances by various leaders of opinion has within a year past given rise to the belief that the era of doubt is drawing toward its close. He notes that in France M. Brunetière has used his visit to the Vatican as a text from which to preach the bankruptcy of science as a guide for life; that in England Mr. Huxley's lecture of 1893, on "Evolution and Ethics," which culminated in the thesis that the cosmical process and the ethical process stand in direct antagonism, had not ceased to be a center of debate when three notable books appeared, each of which in turn brought evidence of a new movement in the direction of philosophical or religious faith. He cites Mr. Kidd's "Social Evolution," Mr. Balfour's "Foundations of Belief," and the posthumous "Thoughts on Religion" of Professor Romanes, the latter being held to "show that before his death he had returned to the enjoyment of theistic and Christian belief." Professor Armstrong then says:

"Not less remarkable than the appearance of these works has been the reception which they have met. The eagerness of the public to hail them as signs of a return to faith has proved how deep the faith still strikes its roots in the heart of the Western world, and has revealed the tension under which many earnest minds have suffered; but it has also shown how greatly the age has misconceived the nature of the forces at work in its midst. For, like the man who counts his own burden heavier than that of any other of his kind, we have been so blinded by our doubts and difficulties that it has been easy to fear our age was to be marked by the final dissolution of fixed beliefs. Friends and foes of systematic thinking have combined, the ones to dread, the others to hope, that the perplexities of thought which the last half century has brought were so grave that no way of escape could possibly be discovered. Thus we have overlooked the fact that our troublous time is not unique in the history of the world. Proud of our enlightenment, we have committed the unenlightened blunder of taking our own experiences too seriously, in forgetfulness of the truth that the world has seen several such skeptical periods in the past—the age of the Sophists in Greece, the transition from medieval to modern times, and the eighteenth century in Europe, to name no others; that these various eras exhibit a family likeness; and that one characteristic point of resemblance among them is the law of action and reaction, under which the skeptical movement works out its own dissolution until the period of doubt gives place at length to one of more positive belief."

Professor Armstrong says that the tokens of change in the temper of the age have not been confined to the year just ended, or to any country, or to any single department of thought. He asserts that "philosophy has revived as men have felt anew the perennial impulse to seek answers for the great questions of existence," and that there is a marked recovery from the decline of a generation ago. We quote again:

"In the matter of religion it may be noted that, like philosophy and morals, theology is not without its tendencies of reaction toward more conservative theories, as well as those 'advanced' or 'liberal' movements which have formed so prominent a feature in recent theological opinion. For, if questions of criticism now stand in the forefront of theological discussions, and if the Old-Testament records seem in danger from a disintegrating attack, which must radically alter the view hitherto taken of them by the Christian world, it must be remembered that the New-Testament writings, passing through the same fire of criticism, have been found to stand the test much more successfully than appeared possible in the early days of the controversy, and that, in regard to the older book as well, there are evident the beginnings of a

movement to reconstruct, on the basis of critical results, more positive theories of the history and religion of Israel. Apart, too, from special questions of theology, there is observable in many quarters a new disposition to estimate religion at some real value. It may be too much to say, as it has recently been said, that there is to-day no scientist who reckons religion a delusion; but it is plain that both science and philosophy have retreated to a not inconsiderable degree from the negative, or even contemptuous, attitude assumed by some of their adherents in times little removed from the present."

Professor Armstrong then goes into an examination of religious auxiliary questions, and closes by saying:

"The troubles of the body social are forcing men to renewed consideration of ethical principles; but it is quite as evident that social questions have their important religious bearings as that they involve moral issues. Shall it be said, then, that the social problem is likely to generate a reaction toward faith? Probably any one who should to-day maintain the affirmative of this question would encounter much ironical criticism; yet, if all the elements in the situation be taken into account, the suggestion is far from being unfounded. For, while religion in its general aspects is involved in the issue, Christianity stands in a special relation to it. The cures for social ills which have been so loudly heralded by certain parties in the church may indeed be of doubtful efficacy when tested by sober reason; but there is a striking kinship between the Christianity, doctrinal and applied, which is needed by the closing nineteenth century and that which proved so potent a force when the Christian religion was first fighting its way to recognition. There are few evidences of religion so convincing as religion in action, and so fast as Christianity proves itself able to grapple with the evils which beset society its renewed acceptance will be a direct corollary from the laws under which opinion normally develops."

THE TRAINING OF A JESUIT.

A MORE than ordinary interest is taken in the teaching, tenets, and tendencies of the Jesuit Order. They constitute the most hated and the most loved congregation within the fold of the Roman Catholic Church. This fact gives additional zest to the anonymously published account by a former Jesuit in the *Christliche Welt* (Leipsic, Nos. 44-46). Among the interesting data furnished by this convert to Protestantism are these:

The *probatio prima*, or first probation, continues about four weeks, and consists entirely in a close watching of the candidate for admission. He is placed under the special guardianship of an "angel," or older brother, who must report his every movement to the Superior. He understood how to win me body and soul. The little package of tobacco which I had smuggled into the cloister was soon exhausted. While suffering keenly for the want of the narcotic, my "angel" one day brought me a package of tobacco, with the significant words: "Laudate Dominum in nubibus" [Praise the Lord in the clouds (*i.e.*, of smoke)].

The second probation extends over a period of two years. Its object is spiritual asceticism, an intellectual and moral transformation of the man to make him the absolutely pliable tool to the ends and purposes of the Order. Every motion of his body is regulated by rules and commands. He is allowed to associate with none but other novitiates or his superiors. At least twenty times a day he obeys an order to partake in certain ceremonies, rites, and services. He is awakened at 4:30 A.M. and at 5 the first great public service begins. These prayers are repeated seven times during the day. Every hour, and almost every minute, of the day has its own spiritual work, study, or reflection. Self-examination and confession is a fixed and regular part of the *rigorosum*. He partakes of communion twice or oftener each week; and a leading part of the training is the confession of his innermost thoughts to the Superior. Yet it would be anything but correct to imagine that the Jesuit's existence consists entirely in these services and ceremonies. One method of gaining the novice for the Society is the excellency of the "daily bread" provided for him. Already in the days of King Siegmund of Bohemia, who remembered the Jesuits so liberally, it was a common saying that their favorite sign I.H.S. (Jesus, Savior of Men), really meant "Jesuitæ habent satis," *i.e.*, the Jesuits have abun-

dance. The monks of other orders are accustomed to quote these words against the Jesuits:

Jesuita, bona vita
Edit cornes, bibit vinum
Et non cantat matutinum.

[The Jesuit leads a fine life; he eats meat and drinks wine, and sings no early mass.]

The fact of the matter is that the Jesuits are accustomed to an excellent table. Our dinner consisted of four and the supper of three courses, and at each meal we had beer or wine. On every saint's day, we had, corresponding to the greatness of the saint, additional courses and two or three extra kinds of wine.

The experience of a few months made me an enthusiastic Jesuit, an absolutely obedient servant of my superiors. I often heard of some of the fathers that they had entered the ranks of the society "*propter esum*" [on account of the eating], but had finally become members *propter Jesum* [on account of Jesus]. My teacher said to me: "My son, our passions are adiaphora—something in themselves indifferent. We should train them for our purposes. If you are greedy transfer your greed from the love of money to the love of virtues. If you are ambitious, seek not your own honor, but the honor of heaven. If you are voluptuous, seek to gratify your passion in the cultus of the Virgin Mary. In this way the passions, instead of being the instruments of Satan, become the instruments of God."

The writer of this article declares that only later when he began to study his spiritual condition more honestly did he recognize his actual condition and felt himself compelled to discard Jesuitism and its teachings.—*Translated and Condensed for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

THE ENGLISH SECTARIAN SCHOOL CONTROVERSY.

A BITTER and protracted struggle is in progress in Great Britain over the question of Government support for sectarian schools. The controversy began some months ago and has been increasing in depth and intensity ever since. It has its political as well as its religious phases, and, for the time being at least, has created some serious divisions among men who have stood strongly together on other questions. Thus the English Liberals are not in favor of Lord Salisbury's scheme of religious education in Great Britain and Ireland, and have fallen out on this question with their political allies, the Irish Nationalists, who believe in what they call the "cause of Christian education." The controversy has many points in common with the perennial difficulty over sectarian schools in this country, and that which is threatening rebellion in Canada.

The main point just now at issue in England relates to a proposed additional grant to the "Voluntary" or Anglican schools, from out of the taxes—not the "rates"—the clergy having asked that the state shall pay all the salaries of the teachers. This would mean another £1,500,000 sterling for clerical schools, in addition to the several millions already expended annually for this purpose. In arguing this point the authorities of the Established Church and the Roman Catholics are united. Recently Lord Salisbury told a delegation of Wesleyans that he did not care to conceal his strong animus in favor of the Anglican and Roman Catholic demands. He used the terms "You Wesleyans" and "We Anglicans," and declared that he voiced the policy of the Church of England. A London despatch, speaking of this conference, says: "His tone and language have aroused the dissenters throughout the country. At a subsequent meeting of the non-conformist council, Dr. Clifford, the president, said he was of the opinion that the country was entering upon a great struggle which menaced the freedom of Christian education. If the Prime Minister's plans succeeded, the Anglican and Roman Catholic churches would get for educational purposes endowments amounting to about £3,000,000 yearly." The non-conformists, led by

such men as Principal Fairbairn of Mansfield College, and Hugh Price Hughes, are strenuously resisting these demands, and the English press, secular, religious, and educational, is filled with the noise of battle. Of such importance is the issue regarded that *The Freeman*, a Baptist organ, has issued a supplement filled with "powder and shot" for the non-conformist side, and other papers such as *The British Weekly*, *The Christian Leader*, and *The Christian World* come bristling with belligerent letters and editorial articles on the same subjects. The non-conformists contend that every grant to a sectarian school is a subsidy to the sect to which it belongs, and that the "voluntary" schools exist avowedly for the purpose of "promoting the education of the poor in the principles of the Established Church." On the other hand the Board schools, which resemble in some respects free public schools, are no more non-conformist than they are Anglican, since in respect to these all churches stand on an equality, and what is allowed to be taught in the way of religious instruction is common to all faiths.

The religious side of the non-conformist contention is well put by Principal Fairbairn in a letter to the *London Times*. He maintains that the state money must not be given to denominational schools to teach sectarian religious points. That would mean, he thinks, the drilling of most children into Church of Englandism, and other children in Romanism, at the expense of the state. And he reflects very gravely on Lord Salisbury for speaking and acting not as a statesman but as a churchman, not as premier for all England but as advocate for the archbishops, and one sect only. The following is an extract from Principal Fairbairn's letter:

"I repeat, fully conscious as to the responsibility which publicity involves, that in its practical working, where it is uncorrected by a vigilant and independent public opinion and the competition of the Board school, the church school either is, or tends to be, a means of enforcing alike on pupils and parents a new Act of Uniformity. And tho this enforcement be without the knowledge and against the mind of the state, yet without the money and support of the state the thing could not be done at all. And this is the initial ground of offense. To establish and completely to endow denominational schools would be by multitudes construed as equal to a new Act of Uniformity, which could only be met by a new non-conformity. And I submit (a) that no government based on the popular will can long maintain an educational system which provokes chronic discord within the community; (b) that the more this discord is due to religious questions the less can it be ended by securing, by the help of national funds, supremacy to one denomination and by granting to it the sole right to teach within large districts of the country; (c) that therefore the more the religious character of education depends upon the resources granted and the privileges accorded by the state to the most favored church, the more uncertain will be its continuance. For the stronger the religious convictions of the men who differ from the governing sect, the more invincible will be their claim that the state end the intolerable anomaly of so unconstitutional a monopoly and cease attempting to exterminate the inextinguishable."

"To me the one security for the continuance of religious education in schools is the English people as instructed, penetrated, and possessed by the English churches. So long as the people are Christian, English education will never be Pagan; should they ever become infidel, no denomination will keep the education religious. Within the people all churches are active; but it is the people as a people, and not any church in particular, that ought to be entrusted with what concerns them as a whole and is not the peculiar business of any single denomination. And within the body of the people each church has its place and does its work; all tend to keep the mind of the people exercised about religion; and all are jealous lest the aspect it most magnifies should be despised. The English religious character is far too rich and complex, its religious history and life are too strong and varied, to be expressed or represented by any one church, and the forces that have made us a religious people are, if left to their normal action, quite sure to make and keep our education religious."

GOODNESS INNATE IN MAN.

"BE a good man, my dear," were Sir Walter Scott's last words to Lockhart. Something of the same spirit, tho clothed in the language of occult mysticism, breathes through an article on "The Invisible Goodness" (*Nouvelle Revue*, Paris, December 1) by M. Maurice Maeterlinck, whom his admirers call "the Belgian Shakespeare," but whom others denounce as the most morbid of decadents. In this essay he takes for his topic the feeling of good-will toward men that he assumes is hidden away in every one's heart, even in the depraved and criminal. His language is mystically philosophical—Gnostic, Pagan, or Buddhist—quite as much as Christian. He says:

"The gods whence we are sprung manifest themselves in us in a thousand divers ways; but this secret good-will, that has never been noticed and of which no one has yet spoken directly, is perhaps the purest sign of their eternal life. We know not whence it comes. It is simply there, smiling in the depths of our souls, and those in whom it smiles most deeply or most frequently can torture us day and night if they please without making it possible for us to cease loving them.

"It is not of this world, and yet it mingles in most of our sentiments. It does not even give itself the trouble to show itself by a glance or a tear. On the contrary, it hides itself, for reasons that we can not divine. We might say that it is afraid of using its power. It knows that its most involuntary movements give birth around it to immortal things, and we are eager for immortal things. Why then do we thus fear to show the heaven that is in us? We dare not act according to the divinity that dwells in us. We doubt of that which can not be explained by gesture or word, and we shut our eyes on what we accomplish, in spite of ourselves, in the realm where explanations are superfluous. Whence comes, then, this timidity of divine things in man? It would seem surely that the more a movement of the soul approaches the divine, the more care we take to dissimulate it from the sight of our brothers. Should not man be something else than a god who is afraid? Or are we forbidden to betray superior powers? All that appertains not to this too visible world has the tender humility of the invalid daughter whom the mother does not summon when strangers enter the house. And this is why our secret daughter, Good-will, has never yet broken down the silent gates of the soul. She lives in us like a prisoner who has been forbidden to approach the prison doors. And it is not necessary that she should approach them. It suffices that she is there. She is right to hide herself. When she raises her head, when she moves a link of her chains, or when she opens her hand, the prison is flooded with light, sighs give way before the pressure of inward brightness, and there is all at once a whole abyss full of angels fluttering between words and being; all is still, looks are averted for an instant, and two souls embrace in the midst of their tears.

"That is not a thing that comes of our earth, and all descriptions are worth nothing. Those who wish to understand me must have within themselves the same sensitive point. If you have never experienced in your life the power of your invisible good-will, go no farther, it will be useless. But are there any, truly, who have never felt this power, and were the worst among us ever invisibly good? I know not; there are so many creatures in this world who dream of nothing but to discourage the divinity in their souls. In an instant, nevertheless, the divinity may reveal itself; even the wickedest are not always on their guard. This is why, doubtless, so many bad men are good without any one seeing it, while many sages and many saints are not always invisibly good. . . .

"This invisible and divine goodness, of which I speak here only because it is one of the surest and nearest signs of the incessant activities of the soul—this invisible and divine goodness ennobles in a definitive way all that it touches unawares. Let him who has fault to find with a fellow being descend into himself and ask himself whether he was ever good in the presence of this fellow being. As for me I have never met any one by whose side I have felt my invisible goodness aroused without his becoming at the same instant better than myself. Be good in the depths of your hearts and you will see that those around you will become good in the same way. Nothing responds more infallibly to the secret cry of good-will than the secret cry of a neighboring

good-will. While you are actively good in the invisible, all those that approach you will unconsciously do things that they could not do beside another man. There is here a force without a name—a spiritual rivalry that is irresistible. One would say that just here is the most sensitive point of our souls, for some of these souls seem to have forgotten that they exist, and to have renounced all that which elevates the spiritual nature; but when they are approached in this way they all turn, and in the divine fields of secret good-will the humblest of souls will not endure defeat.

"And, nevertheless, it is possible that nothing in our visible lives may change; but is that the only thing of import? Do we exist, truly, only by those arts that one can lay his hands upon, as on the pebbles in the highway? If you ask yourself, as they tell us we ought to ask ourselves every night, 'What immortal deed have I done this day?' is it only among things that can be counted, weighed, and measured that we ought to make search? It is possible to draw wonderful tears, to fill a heart with unheard-of certitude, and to give life eternal to a soul, without any one's perceiving it, without knowing it yourself. It is possible that there may be no change; it is possible that all may fail at the test, and that this good-will may yield to the least fear. It matters not. Something divine has taken place, and doubtless God has smiled on it. Is it not perhaps the supreme aim of life to cause thus the inexplicable to be born again within us, and do we know what we are adding to ourselves when we awake a little of the incomprehensible that sleeps in every depth? Here, you have awakened that love that will never sleep again. The soul into which your soul has gazed and which has shed with you the holy tears of solemn joy that no one shall see, would wish you no ill, tho in the midst of tortures. It would even feel no need of pardoning. It is so sure of we know not what, that nothing could efface or pall its inward smile; for naught can separate two souls that, for one instant only, have 'been good together.'"
—Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.

A DEFENSE OF FOREIGN MISSIONS.

THE subject of foreign missions continues to be one of the leading themes of the hour. Missions are discussed in the pulpit, in the newspaper, in pamphlet, and magazine, and unfavorable criticism finds expression quite as freely as eulogy or defense. In a paper on the subject of "Foreign Missions in the Light of Fact," in the January *North American*, Rev. Dr. Judson Smith, a Congregationalist, and Foreign Secretary of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, prefatorially says:

"The criticisms we hear may be reduced to four classes. They assert that the aim of foreign missions to Christianize all nations is absurd and incapable of execution; or that foreign missions are in the hands of unfit and incapable men, who can never carry them through to success; or that the methods employed are so unreasonable, so ill-adapted to the end, that they provoke opposition and hatred rather than confidence and love; or that, at any rate, they have accomplished nothing, and can never win any real success. These criticisms are fatal if they are valid, fatal not alone to foreign missions, but to the whole Christian scheme. Nothing is more deeply embedded in the Gospel than its universality; nothing is more central in Christ's work and claims than that He is the Redeemer and Lord of all the nations and generations of the earth, and that 'of His kingdom there shall be no end.' If Christ was mistaken upon these fundamental points, so that the effort to carry out his purposes and build His kingdom in all the earth is absurd and fruitless, His authority as teacher and His power as Redeemer are at an end. A presumption, almost overwhelming, is thus raised against these objections at the very outset, and before they are considered in detail."

Dr. Smith calls attention to the fact that "foreign missions are as old as Christianity, and have been in progress from the day of Pentecost to this hour," and that to-day Christian America and Christian Europe join hands "in the deliberate purpose to preach the Gospel and build the church in every continent and nation and island of the earth." He avers that there is nothing in history more majestic than the march of Christianity from the place of

its origin across the nations and down the centuries to a worldwide dominion. He continues:

"The expediency or the success of this movement is not to be judged merely by what has happened within the present generation or even within the present century, but by the recorded facts of eighteen hundred Christian centuries. The progress may appear to be slow in turning India and China to the Christian faith; but that is not the whole story. Foreign missions penetrated and filled and regenerated the Roman Empire, even tho it required nearly three centuries to achieve the result; and no judgment of their success or fitness is valid that builds upon one of these facts and ignores the other. There was a time when it was as hard to find a Roman Christian as it ever has been to find a Chinese Christian; but that time quickly passed and passed forever, as it has already passed long since in China. . . .

"The precept of our Lord, 'Go, teach all nations,' is clear and unrepealed; there can be no limit to the field. The mission of Jesus Christ is as certainly to the modern world as to the world of His day, as directly to Hindus as to Romans, to Chinese and Japanese as to Americans. It is no more presumptuous for the missionaries of our times to attempt the Christianization of the Oriental nations and the African tribes than it was for the Apostles and their successors to attempt the conversion of the old Roman world. For Christ is the Lord and Savior of India and China and Japan, or He is not Lord and Savior to any man. If we deny that He has any special gift for the people of the Orient, we must deny that He has any gift for man at all, and ignore the supreme facts of the eighteen Christian centuries that lie behind us."

Much of Dr. Smith's article is devoted to a defense of the personal character of missionaries. We select one paragraph:

"Compared with other Christian teachers and leaders of their times, foreign missionaries as a class are in no respect deficient or in need of apology. For strength and clearness of mind, for balanced judgment, for practical sense, for industry and efficiency, for power in leadership and organization, for success in dealing with men, for magnanimity and courage, for patience and heroic self-denial, they are the peers of the best men of their generation." Carey, with whom our modern movement began, was one of the most remarkable linguists of any age, and has put the learning of this century under lasting obligations. Judson, the apostle to Burma, was one of the foremost men of his times in all respects; and his achievements are a standing witness to his power. Livingstone, whose contributions to geography and science and the discovery of a continent are in the mouth of every one, did all his great service as a missionary. And what shall I say more of Morrison and Bridgman, of Dwight and Riggs, of Williams and Parker, of Jessup and Van Dyke, of Patteson and Bingham, of Hannington and Pinkerton, and the hosts of men and women, who, in many lands, in many tongues, and through the generations, have witnessed the Gospel, subdued kingdoms, wrought righteousness, and entered into rest? The men and women whom we send come out of our purest homes; many of them are trained in our best colleges and universities; they are not mere devotees or enthusiasts, but practical, sensible, capable of the best service that is rendered at home and abroad."

Care of Aged Ministers.—"In the Episcopal Church, chiefly in the diocese of New York, they are discussing the subject of 'The Necessity and Duty of Providing a Retiring Fund for the Clergy of the Church, of which an Aged or Disabled Presbyter can avail himself without Humiliation.' It is a subject worth discussing, and may be very wisely taken up and considered by all the branches of the Christian church. In the city of New York a policeman can retire, upon an adequate allowance, after thirty years' service. In a much higher sphere, an officer of the army or navy of the United States can retire, or be retired, at the age of sixty-five years and receive a pension, which is called 'pay,' and which will support him comfortably during the remainder of his life. He takes this without 'any sense of humiliation.' The Christian ministry should fare as well as these two classes of officials. In a tentative way—though in a very good way—the Presbyterian Church is following in the wake of the state. It should take up the work in an enlarged and definite way, and make its 'retiring fund' a fund for all its veteran clergy, without any regard to the question whether they are 'disabled' or not."—*The Presbyterian, Philadelphia.*

Some Strong Language.—The value of the American Bible Society's work, says *The Presbyterian Review*, is illustrated by the following extract from *The Catholic News*, of Trinidad:

"That most pernicious of all pernicious sects—the Protestant Bible Society—is again at its murderous work. Its false prophets are galvanized into temporary activity, and this time it is the 'benighted' Catholics of Spanish America who are to have the peace of their homes invaded and the sanctity of their religion vilified by psalm-singing twaddlers, gospel tramps, and ignorant hirelings, who are about as competent to explain the Word of God as a Hottentot is to lecture on bimetallism. Those paid emissaries of a society that gather into its coffers the savings of dyspeptic old maids, these self-constituted apostles, laymen clothed in clerical garb, carry on an infamous traffic in a Bible which they can not understand, and yet profess to explain to the addle-pated dupes who are weak enough to listen to them. All honor then to the Catholics of South America who have expelled the evangelical carpet-baggers. The priests and people of Spanish America will not remain passive while the slimy serpent of Heresy endeavors to imprint its poisonous fangs in the souls of their little ones. If the Venezuelans are ignorant of anything, it is of the use of tar and feathers, a judicious application of which would be sufficient to keep the brawling ranters of the Bible Society at a safe distance from their shores."

Where Washington was Dubbed "The Father of his Country."—*The American Catholic News* says: "Philadelphia has an historic Catholic church in St. Mary's, in Fourth Street, above Spruce Street. It was founded in 1763 by Father Robert Harding, S.J., who spoke against British tyranny as early as 1763. It was in this church of St. Mary on July 4, 1776, that mass and a *Te Deum* were sung 'as fitting observances of the natal day of the United States of America by the grace of God free and independent.' After the surrender of Cornwallis a mass of thanksgiving was offered in St. Mary's, and among those who attended the services were General Washington, General Comte de Rochambeau, General Marquis de Lafayette, General Baron Vlomenil, the Rev. John Carroll, afterward bishop, and many other distinguished friends of liberty. It was also in this historic church that the first observance of the birthday of George Washington was held on February 22, 1800, at which an eulogy of 'The Father of His Country' was delivered by the Rev. Matthew Carr, O.S.A. In the report of that eulogy in *The Pennsylvania Gazette* of that week the editor says: 'Father Carr has given Gen. George Washington a name which will live forever, "The Father of his Country." Certainly the Catholics of America have good reason to be proud of this venerable edifice."

RELIGIOUS NOTES.

THE Belfast (Ireland) *Witness* refers "with pleasure to an example of Christian sympathy and toleration worthy of all imitation which has just been set by a Roman Catholic lady in England. On Tuesday Lady O'Hagan presided over a missionary meeting of the United Methodist Free Churches at Burnley, saying that she accepted the invitation to do so on the broad ground of their common Christianity, and as an opportunity of carrying out those duties of social intercourse and religious toleration of which so much was heard nowadays."

The Presbyterian Witness, of Halifax, N. S., urges its readers to spend the winter with the classic poets. Milton is recommended for his uplifting power. Collins and Gray, as well as Blair and Pollock, are given due weight as "true poets of nature and of Christian faith." Cowper, Tennyson, and Wordsworth are described as great prophets or preacher-poets who stated many truths which the people needed to hear, and applied the truth to the exigencies of the time."

A UNITARIAN minister in Kansas City and a Jewish rabbi in Cleveland unite to protest against Thanksgiving proclamations as an "infringement of those rights of conscience guaranteed by the Constitution." "Somebody," comments *The Interior*, "ought to send to those supposed Americans a political primer with elemental definitions in it. The courts have usually defined liberty of conscience 'as the liberty to believe according to conviction and to worship according to belief.'"

ARCHBISHOP FARRAR made over \$40,000 out of his three books: "The Life of Christ," "The Life of St. Paul," and "Early Days of Christianity." He was a comparatively unknown curate, when one of his sermons attracted the attention of a publisher, who immediately commissioned him to visit Palestine in order to write a biography of Christ. This is how his gift of writing was first discovered.

PROFESSOR GARVIN, Discipline or Campbellite, suggests that to avoid confusion the name of his denomination be made "Kristyun." He says it is quite possible for one to be a Kristyun and not a Christian.

FROM FOREIGN LANDS.

A FRENCH VIEW OF THE ARMENIAN QUESTION.

THE assertion that England is stirring up the Armenians is not new to the reading public on this continent. Many people will, however, be astonished to hear that America is held responsible in part for the outrages committed by the Turks during the past few months. This, at least, is the view taken by the editor of one of the most influential French periodicals, the *Revue Bleue*, Paris. In an article entitled "The Truth about the Armenian Question," he describes the causes of the present disturbances in Turkey as follows:

"Why do the powers ignore all the rest of the paragraphs of this voluminous treaty, and mention solely the 61st, the one in favor of the Armenians? Why not the 23d article, intended to benefit Candia? Nearly every article of this famous treaty, especially those in favor of Turkey as a power, remains a dead letter. We are told that it is necessary to protect the Armenian Christians. But why are these in danger? What is the cause of these massacres? The responsibility rests in two quarters: with England as a power, and with the evangelical missionaries. Let us take a look at the latter first.

"In the United States and in England there are to be found numerous persons who believe that there are millions of souls to be saved in Turkey. These pious persons furnish a large capital for the evangelization of Asia Minor, that is, for the conversion of a population belonging, to a great extent, to various Christian denominations, and living in the country from which Christianity has sprung. That proselytes are made, can not be denied. The converts are attracted by two things: money and protection. Thanks to the money, numbers of young Armenians finish their education at English and American universities. That is an irresistible argument in favor of conversion. Generally speaking, the peoples of Asia Minor are poor, while those of the European provinces live in comparatively easy circumstances. Among the latter the missionaries are less successful. The Armenians form the best *clientèle* of the missionaries, and there are Armenian doctors, professors, lawyers, and engineers who have studied at the expense of the evangelical propaganda. Upon their return home, they fill the heads of their compatriots with ambitions which can not be realized.

"As for the protection accorded to the proselytes, it is a strong, if not the strongest argument in favor of conversion. The converts put themselves under the protection of the missionaries, who are themselves protected by their various governments. Some of the converts also obtain foreign-citizen rights—chiefly American—and enjoy the privileges of foreigners according to certain treaty rights. The presence of these many American missionaries and citizens explains the part played by the American legation and the despatch of American ships of war to the Dardanelles."

The writer now turns to the British possession of Cyprus, and claims that it is quite as badly administered as Armenia. The powers, therefore, if they were just, should intervene to restore order to Cyprus as well as Armenia. But England ignores the beam in its own eye, and demands reforms in Turkey only. These are her reasons:

"It is in the first place the Egyptian question that determines England's attitude toward Turkey. It is a matter of facts and persons. The facts are known to the whole world: England is displeased that Turkey refuses to acknowledge her as mistress of the Nile country. The personal aspect of the matter is less well known. Sultan Abdul Hamid has never ceased to regard Egypt as a province of his empire, nor has he given up the hope of recovering his rights over that rich country. But England has still greater interests than these to guard. The English intend to construct a railroad through the valley of the Euphrates to establish a new communication with India. But the Porte evades all questions regarding the necessary concession for such a railroad, preferring to deal with French and German capitalists rather than the English. The Armenian difficulty, therefore, is

intended to convey an English warning to the Sultan to the following effect: 'You must cease to busy yourself with Egypt in defiance to us; you must stop causing diplomatic difficulties by flirting with the dual alliance, or you will rouse a veritable tempest about your ears.'

"With regard to Russia, England hopes to convert Armenia into a rampart against that power. The Kurds, paid by British money, could be formed into a formidable force against the Russians. England has vast plans on the subject. Intercepted correspondence shows that it is planned to convert Turkish and Russian Armenia into one great principality under British influence. Does England intend to proceed alone with the dismemberment of Turkey? We must answer that question in the affirmative. The English want to act by themselves in order to obtain from the Sultan another island or another province, besides other concessions. England has prepared for this by sending a strong fleet to the Dardanelles, and France must send one that is equally numerous in order to preserve her prestige in the eyes of the Orientals."

As to reforms, the writer does not quite see how they are to be applied. The treaty of Berlin speaks of reforms for the provinces in which the Armenians are settled. Now, Armenians are found all over Turkey, but they form nowhere a majority. And the Mohammedans for the most part do not ask for a change in their administration. In the vilayets of Angora, Siwas Wau, Diarbekir, Bitlis, and Erzeroum the Armenian population is more numerous than anywhere else, but even here it falls far short of the Mohammedan majority. In these vilayets the Mussulmans number 3,750,000, the Gregorian Armenians 850,000, the Protestant Armenians 61,000. The 59,000 Roman Catholic Armenians do not make common cause with the others, and the 370,000 Greeks and 200,000 Nestorians, Chaldeans, and Syrians are also quiet enough. Thus the reforms would have to be applied for the sake of 17 per cent. of the population.—*Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

CANADA AND THE CANADIANS THROUGH SPANISH EYES.

QUIETLY and unostentatiously, but none the less effectively, the great Dominion on our Northern frontier is taking its place among the foremost nations of the world. English writers have described it as the home of the rejuvenated Anglo-Saxon. Germans point to its stability, which makes it specially valuable to investors who care more for certain than for large returns on their capital. But the most flattering recognition of Canadian work comes from Spain. Among the Spaniards, who are just emerging from the lethargy of centuries, Canada is regarded as an instance of what a colony can become under proper management, and many writers of note advise the reconstruction of the government of Cuba on Canadian lines. Adolfo Posada, Professor of Political Economy at the University of Oviedo, has a paper on this subject in the *España Moderna*, Madrid. We summarize his article as follows:

Hasty persons persist in believing that social ills can be cured by the application of some political panacea, some form of government which they judge only by the excellent results obtained in the country of its origin. We have a typical case in the Cuban question. The difficulties of the situation in Cuba, in a great measure caused by our traditional errors and our backwardness, naturally call for a solution. "What is to be done," is the universal cry, "to furnish Cuba with a prosperous policy? What kind of rule will insure progress and peace effectively?" People are gradually convinced that Cuba must have some prudent measure of autonomy, with more or less liberty. But the idea of autonomy, easy enough to express in a theoretical way, is far less easy to carry out practically. In principle, political autonomy is expressed by the English *self-government*, and means the right of a certain social entity to administer its own affairs, while yet it remains within a larger and, in some respects, superior organization. Our eyes are naturally turned toward Canada. Rightly or wrongly, the impression has gone abroad that the Pearl of the

Antilles must be governed like Canada. The idea is seductive enough. The Dominion is certainly a strong argument in favor of autonomy, a beautiful case in point.

Canada has passed through terrible crises, has had its internal dissensions, has not been free from bloody uprisings, and looks back upon periods when its political existence was in great danger. But Canada has now established herself as a state within a state, has become a semi-national power, is strong, prosperous, and a veritable school of parliamentarian usages—all under autonomical government. Canada's progress dates chiefly since 1867, when its federal autonomy was established. Clearly, all this prosperity is not due solely to reforms in political organization. It could not have been accomplished without the brave spirit within the race, fit to raise great empires. Much is due also to Canada's geographical situation and no less to the general progress of the world. But it can not be denied that a government accepted by the people as satisfactory to their ideals, a government that sets no limits to the expansion of human activity, and whose establishment closed a period of dangerous crises, substituting a time of harmony and peace, seems very favorable to human progress.

While thus the writer showers praise upon our neighbors, he warns his countrymen and the Cubans that they must not expect to see all the outward benefits of Canada's autonomy in the case of the Havana as soon as that island is given self-government. Canadian prosperity, as well as Canadian autonomy and federation, are solid and stable because they are of slow growth and the result of much patient labor. He also explains that Canada, the semi-independent, is a source of strength rather than weakness to the mother-country.—*Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

AMERICA'S DUTIES UNDER THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

EUROPE begins to recognize that the Monroe doctrine is in reality Uncle Sam's means to ascertain—as the Minneapolis *Journal* has it—"whether I'm boss over hyar or not." This furnishes two new subjects of discussion to European writers. Some, with Professor Lammash of Vienna at their head, think that the people of our Republic attempt to deduce imperial rights over this continent from the fact that the United States is called, for short, America. Others point out that the United States has an excellent chance to prove its sense of justice in the case of Cuba. Spain's title to that island has never been disputed by us, they say. Therefore we must assist her in maintaining her position, to prevent a possible change in the political aspect of this continent. Professor Lammash, who dispenses knowledge on the subject of international law in the Austrian capital, has expressed himself as follows:

"The Americans hold the peculiar view that no European power has a right to interfere in American questions. I do not believe that this position can be made tenable, from whatever standpoint you may look upon it. For centuries all Europeans have been called 'Franks' by the Orientals, just because France used to be the most prominent nation of Western Europe. Yet nobody is likely to declare that this gives France a protectorate over all foreigners in the East. If the claims put forward by the United States are to be acknowledged it must be done on this principle, for the Americans act as if they were the protectors of all North, Central, and South American states just because the United States of North America are called 'America' for short. Nor does the present explanation of the Monroe doctrine agree with its original text, in which it is specially stated that all existing boundaries must be upheld.

"But above all it should be remembered that the Monroe doctrine is not an acknowledged principle in international law. It is nothing but a political program. The United States itself has explained its terms differently at different periods. I will only mention the Panama Canal and the attitude of the United States in the Mexican question as instances. The Monroe doctrine was not brought up in 1863; it was first remembered in 1865, when the United States Government had become stronger.

"The Monroe doctrine is opposed to the principle of non-

intervention if it is turned against all interference in American affairs as inimical to United States interests. President Monroe declared that the United States must not be mixed up in the affairs of European colonies on the Western hemisphere. This is now done, and the Monroe doctrine, instead of gaining in importance, arouses prejudice."

Of some importance also is the attitude of Holland. This country, less than half as large as Ireland, rules over as vast a colonial empire in proportion as Great Britain. Dutch interests in South America and in the West Indies are considerable, and Dutch Guiana is a valuable colony. The *Handelsblad*, Amsterdam, the most widely circulated paper in Holland, expresses itself in very strong terms against President Cleveland's interpretation of the Monroe doctrine. It says:

"This is a terrible danger. The British Government has looked upon the words of the President as a common electioneering maneuver, but the text of his message shows this to be a mistake. It seems that if England will not be sat upon,* the American Republic will actually commit the odious crime of allowing a war to begin over the boundary question of a little South American Republic.

"It would have been wiser for Great Britain, as the larger country, to have submitted her quarrel with Venezuela to arbitration. But Great Britain's refusal to do so can not excuse the presumption of the United States to act as supreme court between a European and an American state, especially as England owns territory in South America, while the Republic has nothing to say there."

The writer here quotes the text of the Monroe doctrine, and continues:

"In reality this doctrine was formulated to strengthen the Republic by giving it an isolated position. But this doctrine can not make the United States of North America *imperator*—supreme ruler over all America, nor does it prevent a European power from demanding reparation if insulted by any American state. The whole thing is a dangerous absurdity. The President plays the part of a policeman who acts only for his friends, but not for the public at large. Or does the President mean that the United States intends to take Canada and Central and South America under its protectorate, thus becoming responsible for everything they do? Will he see to it that Haiti or San Domingo never does anything to harm European interests? If so, then it is his bounden duty to protect the Spaniards at this moment. Or is their attempt to defend their authority in Cuba also in opposition to the Monroe dogma? We fear the President has more hay on his fork than he can lift!"—*Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

ITALY AND ABYSSINIA.

A FEW years ago the Italians deemed it advisable to make use of their strong position among the great powers by entering the ranks of colonizing nations. They established themselves at Erythrea (formerly Massowah) and speedily founded a fairly prosperous dependency. Their new colony is nearly self-supporting, and altho the army which has to be maintained there is large, its expenses are indirectly made good by the increased trade of Italy with Africa, and the large customs receipts at Erythrea. In their endeavors to extend their influence, the Italians have now come to blows with the Abyssinians, whom they had taken under their protection. Abyssinia, the only state of Central Africa with a pretense to civilization, is made up of the territory of a few hundred fierce clans, whose chieftains render more or less obedience to the "negus" or king. The Abyssinians are nominally Christians, but their rites are strangely mixed with pagan usages as old as their hills. The main difficulty between Italy and Abyssinia seems to arise out of the determination of the former to put down slavery. The German missionary Flad writes on this subject:

"According to the doctrines of their church, the Abyssinians

* The writer uses the untranslatable German term *massregeln*.

may enslave prisoners of war captured from the heathens around them. An Abyssinian may not, however, trade in slaves. He inherits them, or receives them as presents, if he does not capture them in war. King Theodorus possessed over 1,000 slaves, and King Menelik is said to have still more, for it is the pride of a prominent Abyssinian to own many. Every Abyssinian has one or more slaves, and these do all the work. Their lot is pitiful enough, and they rarely regain their liberty. King Menelik has given a written promise that slavery should cease, but this promise has never been redeemed. His soldiers continue to supply themselves with slaves in the Galla countries. It is the duty of Europe to assist Italy in suppressing this sort of thing. The Galla nations will develop if once they are safe from slavery, and their country, which is immensely rich, will benefit Italy greatly."

Concerning the slave-trade, the suppression of which has caused so much dissatisfaction in Abyssinia, the Rev. Flad says:

"Regular traffic in slaves is carried on mainly by the Mohammedans. Nearly every Mecca pilgrim takes two 'servants' with him to Arabia. These are slaves; they are sold in Arabia, and their price reimburses the pious Mussulman for the expenses of his religious journey. Besides these, there are the great caravans of slaves captured in the Galla countries, and there are 300 to 500 in a train. Formerly many of these were shipped from Massowah to Arabia, but the Italians have stopped that. They are now sent through Egypt to Tunis and Tripolis, and even as far as Morocco. The slave-trains have to pass through King Menelik's territory, and he demands heavy customs dues from them. The traders, on the other hand, retaliate by stealing poor Abyssinians, whom they add to their stock. The loss of life is terrible; sometimes 50 per cent. die before they reach their destination."

The beginning of the war is marked by a disaster on the Italian side. A column of 1,500 native auxiliaries under the command of Italian officers and non-commissioned officers has been annihilated. But Italy will not give up the idea of subjugating King Menelik on this account. Premier Crispi, the Italian Bismarck, to whom Italy owes the gradual return of her prosperity and prestige, and who has succeeded in arranging her finances, has managed to maintain himself at the head of affairs, altho the Opposition endeavored to enforce his retirement over the African question. Of greater importance than the opposition in the Chambers is the jealousy of France and Russia. Both these powers are unwilling to recognize Italy's protectorate over Abyssinia, because Italy goes hand-in-hand with England. The *Tribuna*, Rome, says:

"The treaty concluded between Italy and Abyssinia prohibits the negus from entering into negotiations with any foreign power except through the intervention of Italy. Russia alone has refused to acknowledge this treaty in full, but her objections are of a religious character only. Italy has now proof that Negus Menelik violates the treaty in many ways, and the Italian Government will not allow any interference on the part of other powers. France has long ago promised to keep out of all intrigues, and is bound to prevent the exportation of arms and ammunition to Abyssinia. England's interests are identical with our own, and the English Government will allow us to march through their territory if that is deemed necessary."

Russia did, during the middle of last year, take extraordinary interest in Abyssinia. But the deputation of Abyssinians which visited St. Petersburg proved to be barbarous and ignorant. The order offered to the Czar—The Star of Solomon's Seal—was started by an enterprising Russian agent, its jewels were worthless glass, and the deputation was rather backward in acknowledging the Czar's authority as head of their church. Russian interest has now declined, and the *Gazette de Moscow* declares that Russia will not actively interfere on behalf of Abyssinia.—*Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

HATRED of the Jews is waxing worse in Germany and Austria. This is said to be true also in France. Even in London the agitation against "pauper aliens" is chiefly supported, says *The London Spectator*, by hatred of the Jews. *The Spectator* adds somewhat bitterly: "We know of no clearer proof that, whatever the merits of Democracy, its creed is not a religion of love."

ALL ABOUT \$20,000.

THE Carmanx strike is at an end. It has ended in an irrevocable lockout of the glass-workers, who, following the advice of the Socialist chiefs of France, insisted that an employer must not be allowed to discharge a workman who openly agitates against him. For months the struggle lasted; all France took sides in it; even the Government was asked to interfere on behalf of the strikers. This struggle leaves thousands of working-men and their families without means of subsistence. Curiously enough, there is a large sum of money, \$20,000, deposited in the Bank of France to relieve these sufferers. A wealthy woman has given this sum as the nucleus of a fund with which the locked-out workmen are to erect a factory of their own. But the Socialist leaders object to this, and their enemies declare that they do so because the members of cooperative societies will be irrevocably lost to the revolutionary cause if their venture is successful. The *General Anzeiger*, Frankfort, contains a sketch of the quarrel which has arisen over Mme. Dembourg's princely gift, while the workmen of Carmaux and their families remain in a state of utter deprivation. The writer says:

"Mme. Dembourg is a faithful reader of the *Intransigeant*, has unbounded faith in Henri Rochefort, and handed the money to him, confident that she had laid the foundation of much happiness. But she has made her calculations without counting the demagogues. The men who live by agitation do not see why their Carmaux friends should suddenly be made free and independent. If the workmen own a factory, they will no longer care for strikes. They would not be likely to quarrel among themselves about wages, and would hold all indolent comrades to their work. Worse than that: If the factory is a success, the proletarians will become well-off men, will get more and more conservative, and lose all faith in the doctrine of the universal division of wealth. The Carmaux workmen, until now trustworthy adherents of revolutionary principles, would develop into a lot of small capitalists and bourgeois. Revolutionary meetings would cease."

"The heads of the Socialist party therefore made up their minds that the cursed institution of employers should not prevail in Carmaux, not even in the form of cooperative societies, in which the members are employers and employed in one. The glass-works must be made an institution for the benefit of the whole French proletariat. The workmen were henceforth to earn their bread in the service of the socialistic-revolutionary party of France. Looked into closely, this is nothing but a restoration of the institution of employers, for the employed at Carmaux are not to be allowed to keep the surplus of their earnings, they must hand it over to the 'party,' which just like M. Ressegner, the individual capitalist, can accept and dismiss workmen, and pay wages like any other ordinary 'exploiter.' But the 'party' can not possibly manage this affair. Its members are too numerous to supervise the works carried on in one spot. But then, the delegates could look after the matter, and a committee, which follows in everything the will of the party leader, could play the part of directors of this concern. Thus the Socialist leaders intend to administer a joint stock company whose shareholders will have no say, while the dividends, instead of being distributed, will remain in the hands of a committee with exclusive power to disburse them at will. Now, this is a very pretty idea, perhaps also a correctly Socialistic idea, but it is not a democratic idea. It can not be executed. Henri Rochefort maintains that he has received the 100,000 francs, which he has deposited in the Bank of France, for the benefit of the Carmaux strikers only, and he refuses to hand over the money to the committee. Mme. Dembourg intended to repay these poor deluded sufferers for their hardships; she wished to give them a chance to become financially independent, and hoped to set the example for future cooperative societies. Henri Rochefort says that it would be a violation of his trust to turn over the money to a group of demagogues. Meanwhile the strikers of Carmaux are as much without a livelihood as ever. The 100,000 francs alone are not sufficient to build a bottle-factory, and all plans for raising additional sums go for naught, because the Socialist chiefs quarrel as to whether a glass-workers' factory is to be erected, or a factory for the benefit of workmen. The giver of the money wants the first, the demagogues want the second, but only for appearance's sake. The Allemanist faction openly confess that they intend 'to put the money aside for the preparations of a general strike throughout the country.' Their views are perhaps better expressed by 'putting it away for themselves.'—*Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

THE "MOONSHINERS" OF THE SOUTH.

A GOOD word for the moonshiner—the illicit distiller in the South—is spoken by Mr. Francis Lynde in *Lippincott's* for January. Mr. Lynde reminds us that to the Southern mountaineer the turning of his corn into whisky seems as natural and right as changing his apples into cider does to the Northern owner of orchards; that from his restricted point of view the tax on the manufacture of spirituous liquors is a thing accursed—an unjust measure directed against his inherent right to do that which he will with his own; and that for this reason it is next to impossible to convince him that an infraction of the revenue laws is a thing intrinsically wrong. We quote from Mr. Lynde's "Moonshiner of Fact":

"Aside from his convictions in the matter this temptations to become a law-breaker are very considerable. In addition to the fact that he can not market his crop in its natural state—a condition which puts him at once in the very forefront of the battle in the struggle for existence—he is usually remote from towns and so unable to procure even the small alcoholic basis needed for the simple remedies which he compounds from the roots and herbs of his native forests. A trifling need, one may say, yet sickness is a mighty lever; and since the penalties imposed by law extend to the *carrier* of untaxed liquor, many a mountaineer has been led into wrong-doing by motives which were quite the reverse of criminal. . . .

"Notwithstanding such prosecutions, however, and the consequent ill-feeling stirred up by them, the moonshiners and their sympathizers generally offer little more than a passive resistance to the raids of the revenue officers. And this is the more remarkable when one remembers that the mountaineers come of fighting stock, and that personal wrongs among them are usually redressed without the aid of judge or jury. A closer study of the mountain character—and one which the novelist seems not to have made—explains the apparent contradiction, and also reveals much that is praiseworthy. As a people, the mountaineers are simple and primitive; but, while they have taken on none of the gloss of civilization, they are singularly free from its vices. Theft is uncommon, immorality is rare, and truthfulness is the rule rather than the exception. Their poverty is great, but their hospitality is unbounded. Their enmity is apt to be lasting, but their loyalty to kinsmen and friends is invincible. The latter-day economist may call them thrifless and improvident, but they take privations as a matter of course and ask aid of no man. In the steeple-chase of modern progress they have been left far behind; lacking the means to encourage the schoolmaster, they have gradually lost the inclination; the world around them has moved forward, but they have stood still."

Mr. Lynde says that the moonshiner is neither a bandit nor a highwayman, a disturber of the peace, nor, in respect to formularies other than the revenue statutes, a law-breaker, and that least of all is he a desperado. The following is then related:

"Within a month of this present writing, a traveler on one of the Tennessee railways entered the smoking-car of the train. In the rear seat sat an officer in charge of a 'covey' of moonshiners flushed by him on the mountain the night before. There were twelve in the party; they had yielded without resistance to one man; and—most singular circumstance of all, in the South—the deputy had not found it necessary to put them in irons.

"At their trial, the members of this party will doubtless plead guilty to a man, tho a little hard swearing would probably clear half of them; they will beg for mercy or for light sentences; and those of them who promise amendment will most likely never be again brought in on the same charge, for the mountaineer is prone to keep his promises, amendatory or otherwise.

"A venerable judge, in whom judicial severity is tempered by a generous admixture of loving kindness and mercy, and whose humane decisions have made his name a word to conjure with among the dwellers in the waste places, tells a story which emphasizes the promise-keeping trait in the mountain character. A hardened sinner of the stills, whose first and second offenses were

already recorded against him, was once again brought to book by the vigilance of the revenue-men. As an old offender, who had neither promised nor repented, it was like to go hard with him; and he begged earnestly, not for liberty, but for a commutation of his sentence which would send him to jail instead of the penitentiary, promising that so long as the judge remained upon the bench he would neither make nor meddle with illicit whisky. He won his case, and was sent to jail for a term of eleven months. This was in summer, and six months later, when the first snows began to powder the bleak summits of Chilhowee, the judge received a letter from the convict. It was a simple-hearted petition for a 'furlough' of ten days, pathetic and eloquent in its primitive English and quaint misspelling. Would the good judge let him off for just ten days? Winter was coming on, and the wife and children were alone in the cabin on the mountain, with no one to make provision for their wants. He would not overstay the time, and he would 'certain shore' come back and surrender himself.

"His petition was granted, and, true to his word, the mountaineer returned on the tenth day and gave himself up to the sheriff. He served the remainder of his sentence, and after his release kept his pledge so long as the judge remained on the bench."

A PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE RUSSIANS.

A N interesting psychological analysis of the Russian, as compared with the European in general, prepared by Professor Likorski, of Kieff University, is published in *Kierlianin*, of the same city. Both the virtues and vices of the Russian are frankly discussed. We translate the more important portions of the professor's paper:

"It is no exaggeration to say that the Slavs in general, and the Russians in particular, are distinguished by a tendency to self-analysis, especially to moral self-questioning. The surrounding external conditions do not interest the Russian. He gets along without the abundance of comforts so indispensable to the Englishman, without the excessive refinements with which the Frenchman surrounds himself. He is content with a simple environment, and cares for nothing except an open and warm heart. When we examine international artistic expositions, and concentrate our attention on the subjects treated by the painters of the various nationalities, we can not fail to be struck by the relative poverty and monotony of the Russian coloring and, at the same time, by the abundance and depth of the psychological themes of the Russian artists. The same thing is found in all conspicuous Russian novelists and poets—for instance, in Lermontoff, Turgenieff, Dostoievsky. In other manifestations of our spiritual life the same characteristic is apparent. Thus we may conclude that the development of the soul, rather than the study of nature and the environment, is the most striking peculiarity of the Slav genius. Indeed, this peculiarity manifests itself with special clearness in one of the most fundamental phenomena of life, in the acts of self-preservation. Since 1818, when statistics of suicide first began to be collected, self-destruction has steadily increased at an alarming rate. Comparing the various European countries with respect to suicide we find Russia at the foot of the list. The suicides per million of population are as follows:

Saxony.....	311	Bavaria.....	90
France.....	210	England.....	66
Prussia.....	133	Russia.....	30
Austria.....	130		

"In addition to this showing, we also find that, whereas in other European countries, the number of suicides has increased about forty per cent. since 1855, in Russia the number has been almost stationary. Whatever our views may be as to the sinfulness of suicide, the fact remains that the Slav races are characterized by superior moral fortitude.

"Turning to crime, we find that the number of those convicted of murder is smaller in Russia than in Italy, Spain, Austria, and France. As for those classes of crimes which, by undermining morality, most threaten national life and character, we find that Russia's percentage is very insignificant. . . .

"The most typical traits of the Russian character are melancholy, patience, and exaltation in the midst of misfortunes. Our

national melancholy is wholly alien to pessimism and leads neither to despair nor to suicide; it is rather a melancholy which, as Renan says, causes the highest possible effects. The second typical trait is patience, which, psychologically speaking, is a successful effort of the will to overcome physical and moral suffering. As a result of our patience, we have remarkable self-control and the power to preserve internal spiritual peace. We are not sentimental, but we are capable of stoical resignation and readiness to endure misfortune. Humanity is another of our traits, and it has manifested itself in hospitality, tolerance, respect for other faiths and customs than ours, and, above all, in our disposition to appropriate what is best in other civilizations. The unifying and harmonizing influence of the Slav on other tribes is due to our tolerant spirit."

Next Professor Likorski discusses the faults or vices of the Russian type. He thinks that the Russian lacks energy and self-confidence. He hesitates to take a decisive step, and is altogether too prudent and timid. This timidity and irresolution, again, must be attributed to the want of balance between intellect and heart. The feelings predominate and control in the Russian nature, while the intellect is subordinated to them. Sometimes this weakness leads to grave consequences, by preventing necessary action and prompt decisions.

LINCOLN AS A COUNTRY-STORE CLERK.

ABOUT the year 1831 Abraham Lincoln was clerking in a little log-store, at New Salem, in Sangamon county, Ill., for one Denton Offutt. We are told by Miss Ida M. Tarbell, in *McClure's* for January, that near this store there was a settlement called Clary's Grove, the most conspicuous part of its population being an organization known as the "Clary's Grove Boys," who, tho not a bad set of fellows, exercised a veritable terror over the neighborhood. She quotes one who knew these "boys" as saying of them:

"They were friendly and good-natured; they could trench a pond, dig a bog, build a house; they could pray and fight, make a village or a create a State. They would do almost anything for sport or fun, love or necessity. Tho rude and rough, the life's forces ran over the edge of the bowl, foaming and sparkling in pure deviltry for deviltry's sake, yet place before them a poor man who needed their aid, a lame or sick man, a defenseless woman, a widow, or an orphaned child, they melted into sympathy and charity at once. They gave all they had, and willingly toiled or played cards for more. Tho there never was under the sun a more generous parcel of rowdies, a stranger's introduction was likely to be the most unpleasant part of his acquaintance with them."

Miss Tarbell continues her story:

"Denton Offutt, Lincoln's employer, was just the man to love to boast before such a crowd. He seemed to feel that Lincoln's physical prowess shed glory on himself, and he declared the country over that his clerk could lift more, throw farther, run faster, jump higher, and wrestle better than any man in Sangamon county. The Clary's Grove Boys, of course, felt in honor bound to prove this false, and they appointed their best man, one Jack Armstrong, to 'throw Abe.' Jack Armstrong was, according to the testimony of all who remember him, a 'powerful twister,' 'square built and strong as an ox,' 'the best-made man that ever lived,' and everybody knew the contest would be close. Lincoln did not like to 'tussle and scuffle,' he objected to 'wooling and pulling'; but Offutt had gone so far that it became necessary to yield. The match was held on the ground near the grocery. Clary's Grove and New Salem turned out generally to witness the bout, and betting on the result ran high, the community as a whole staking their jack-knives, tobacco plugs, and 'treats' on Armstrong. The two men had scarcely taken hold of each other before it was evident that the Clary's Grove champion had met a match. The two men wrestled long and hard, but both kept their feet. Neither could throw the other, and Armstrong, convinced of this, tried a 'foul.' Lincoln no sooner realized the game of his antagonist than, furious with indignation, he caught him by the throat, and, holding him out at arm's length, he

'shook him like a child.' Armstrong's friends rushed to his aid, and for a moment it looked as if Lincoln would be routed by sheer force of numbers; but he held his own so bravely that the 'boys,' in spite of their sympathies, were filled with admiration. What bid fair to be a general fight ended in a general hand-shake, even Jack Armstrong declaring that Lincoln was the 'best fellow who ever broke into the camp.' From that day, at the cock-fights and horse-races, which were their common sports, he became the chosen umpire; and when the entertainment broke up in a row—a not uncommon occurrence—he acted the peacemaker without suffering the peacemaker's usual fate. Such was his reputation with the 'Clary's Grove Boys,' after three months in New Salem, that when the fall muster came off he was elected captain.

"Lincoln showed soon that if he was unwilling to indulge in 'wooling and pulling' for amusement, he did not object to it in a case of honor. A man came into the store one day who used profane language in the presence of ladies. Lincoln asked him to stop; but the man persisted, swearing that nobody should prevent his saying what he wanted to. The women gone, the man began to abuse Lincoln so hotly that he latter finally said, coolly: 'Well, if you must be whipped, I suppose I might as well whip you as any other man;' and going outdoors with the fellow, he threw him on the ground, and rubbed smartweed in his eyes until he bellowed for mercy. New Salem's sense of chivalry was touched, and enthusiasm over Lincoln increased.

"His honesty excited no less admiration. Two incidents seem to have particularly impressed the community. Having discovered on one occasion that he had taken six and one-quarter cents too much from a customer, he walked three miles that evening, after his store was closed, to return the money. Again, he weighed out a half-pound of tea, as he supposed. It was night, and this was the last thing he did before closing up. On entering in the morning he discovered a four-ounce weight on the scales. He saw his mistake, and, closing up shop, hurried off to deliver the remainder of the tea."

HOW NAPOLEON TRAVELED.

THE admirable celerity and accuracy of Napoleon's movements in the field, says Prof. W. M. Sloane in the January *Century*, were due to the excellent arrangements by which they were made. We quote as follows from this instalment of the "Life of Napoleon":

"His two inseparable companions were the grand marshal Duroc and Caulaincourt, master of the horse. The latter had always the map of the country through which they were driving or riding ready for instant use. The seats of the imperial carriage could be converted into a couch for the Emperor's frequent night journeys, but ordinarily Berthier and Murat took turns in sitting at his side, while Caulaincourt rode close beside the door. Behind, and as near the wheels as possible, rode seven adjutants, fourteen ordnance officers, and four pages, who must be ready on the instant to receive and carry orders. Two of the officers must be familiar with the speech of the country. Rustan, his Egyptian body-servant, rode with them. There were also two mounted lackeys, each carrying maps, papers, and writing-materials. This escort was protected by a body of mounted chasseurs. In case the Emperor alighted for any purpose, four of these instantly did likewise, and, surrounding him with fixed bayonets or loaded pistols pointed outward to the four points of the compass, preserved this relative position as he moved. Last of all came the grooms with extra horses; for the Emperor's personal use there were from seven to nine. These were substantially the arrangements still in vogue during the Prussian campaign. Thereafter his distrust of those about him gradually increased, until toward the end of his career it became acute, and then, as a consequence, the numbers of his suite were much diminished.

"Whenever there was need of post-haste the Emperor found relays of nine saddle-horses or six carriage-horses prepared at intervals of from seven to ten miles along his route. In this way he often journeyed at the rate of fourteen miles an hour for six hours at a time. Similar arrangements on a much smaller scale were made for the staff. This body was under the indispensable Berthier, and so numerous as to be practically capable of sub-

division into several. In 1806 there were thirteen adjutants, three heads of departments with five adjutants, thirty-one staff-officers, and thirty engineers. Under the chief of artillery was a personal staff of eighteen officers, under the chief of engineers one of nineteen, and under the commissary-general one of forty-three. Arriving at his night quarters, the Emperor found his office ready—a tent or room with five tables, one in the center for himself, and one at each corner for his private secretaries. On his own was a map oriented, and dotted with colored pins which marked the position of every body of his troops. For this campaign he had the only one in existence, prepared long in advance, by his own orders. It is significant of the Prussian overconfidence and supineness that they had none. As soon as possible was arranged the Emperor's bedchamber, across the door of which Rustan slept, and adjoining it was another for the officers on duty. Dinner occupied less than twenty minutes, for in the field Napoleon ate little, and that rapidly. By seven in the evening he was asleep.

"At one in the morning the commander-in-chief arose, entered his office, where the secretaries were already at work, found all reports from the divisions ready at his hand, and then, pacing the floor, dictated his despatches and the orders for the coming day. There is an accepted tradition that he often simultaneously composed and uttered in alternate sentences two different letters, so that two secretaries were busy at the same time in writing papers on different topics. The orders, when completed and revised, were handed to Berthier. By three in the morning they were on their way, and reached the separate corps fresh from headquarters just before the soldiers set out on their march. It was by such perfect machinery that accuracy in both command and obedience was assured."

SKETCH OF CLARA BARTON, OF RED CROSS FAME.

THE Red Cross managers are reported to be busily engaged in preparing for the work before them in Armenia. It is expected that their relief-work will continue six months at least. *The Christian Herald* gives the following biographical sketch of

Miss Clara Barton, President of the American Red Cross Society, who will lead the expedition:

"Clara Barton's name, and the story of her life-long devotion to the cause of humanity, are known throughout the Union. Miss Barton was born in Oxford, Mass., in 1838. She had a thorough education in the public schools of that city, supplemented by a course of study at Clinton, N. Y. For some time she was a teacher in the public schools of Oxford,



CLARA BARTON, PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN RED CROSS SOCIETY.

and subsequently was principal of the first public school at Bordentown, N. J. She was engaged in the Patent Office at Washington in 1861, when the war introduced her to the work that has made her name famous in all lands. Resigning her position in the Patent Office, she devoted herself exclusively to hospital work. As the need increased, she hired a vehicle and went to the scene of the slaughter—Culpepper Court-House being her first destination.

"Miss Barton was on the battle-fields of Cedar Mountain, Antietam, Fredericksburg, Falmouth, and at the siege of Charleston. How many lives were saved in those scenes of slaughter through her prompt ministrations, none can estimate. With her band of

trained nurses, she did noble service, and continued in it to the end of the war.

"With a frame exhausted by continuous labor she went, by the advice of her physicians, to Europe to recuperate. She was there when the Franco-Prussian war broke out, and she immediately offered her services. At Metz, in Paris, and in other scenes of the conflict, she ministered to the wounded and comforted the dying. The Emperor of Germany acknowledged her services by the presentation of the Order of the Iron Cross, and other distinguished personages gave her grateful proofs of tangible esteem. Since then, as President of the American Red Cross Society, she has rendered beneficent services in the Ohio floods, the Michigan fires, the Charleston earthquake, and the Johnstown flood, and other calamities of national import."

"Educated" Fleas.—"There is no one of the side-shows and minor features of museums and fairs which seem on its face more attractive than the exhibition of so-called educated fleas," says *Happy Thought*, Boston, October 15. "There is something in the idea of educating any of the lower animals that appeals to us all, and the lower the animal the more there is in it of interest to the people. The suggestion, even, that it is possible to get insects to perform tricks which seem as if the result of intelligence, excites at once sympathies of spectators, and the educated flea calls together companies who are delighted with the apparent results, altho really ignorant of the causes or of the fact that each trick means the death of that particular flea. If one will reflect but a moment, the absurdity of educating so ephemeral an animal as the flea becomes apparent. After a couple of weeks as a legless little worm, the young flea spins for itself a cocoon which is its habitation for a couple of weeks longer, when it awakes in its familiar form for a brief existence of a few weeks at the most. To instil into so short-lived a creature anything like an appreciation of the tricks that he is to perform is out of the question, and the results which are attained are by a purely mechanical and cruel process. The work which the fleas expected to perform is something in which its instincts to escape becomes of service: it is 'harnessed' to a little wagon or shoots off a miniature cannon, or does some other simple thing requiring only a feeble pull in a straight line. The 'harness' is a sharp-pointed wire which is stuck into the body of the unfortunate insect, and in its struggles to escape the poor flea performs its trick, and the amused spectators are not aware of the cruelty to which it is subjected. If passengers in the shape of other fleas are desired to make the wagon trick more remarkable, or a coachman or a footman, they may be readily had by impaling others of the insects upon properly placed wires, resulting of course, in torture and death of them as well. Our local societies have put a stop to these exhibitions in this State, and very properly so, for the very meanest of created things is entitled to a life free from unnecessary torment."

The Food of American Laborers.—"Dr. Moreau de Tours, the well-known French demographer and hygienist," says *The National Druggist*, December, "in comparing American and European statistics of consumption of food, declares that the average French workman consumes less than one half the amount of meat and nitrogenous food generally than the American, and that even in Great Britain, the most carnivorous of European countries, the individual consumption is less than two thirds that of the American. In Germany, Austria, Italy, Spain, the consumption of meat is, as compared with the American, in the order named, and is from one third in Germany to one tenth in Italy, and in Spain infinitely less." The best-fed class of laborers, says Dr. De Tours, the world ever saw was the Southern negro, in slavery times. Each adult received weekly 3 pounds of bacon, or pork, 10 pounds of farinaceous food (usually fresh cornmeal), and 'vegetables of every species *ad libitum*.' Each negro, then, says our author, 'consumed annually 150 pounds of meat, of a quality superior to that of any European people whatever, being from two to three times superior in point of nutritive value.' To-day, while the supply is not so sure, by any manner of means, as it used to be, the Southern negro lives more luxuriously, not merely than any other laborer, but than the middle classes of any European nation whatever. Compared with Asiatic peoples, the figures are absolutely startling."

1.	Kt-B 3, mate
2. B x Q	
3.	Kt x R, mate
4. R-Kt 4, ch	
5.	Q x B P, mate
6. Q-K 6	
7.	BLACK MOVES.
8. Q-K 6	K-B 5, mate
9.	Q-Kt 7, or 8, or x P
10.	R-Kt 4, mate
11. Any other	

Correct solution received from M. W. H., University of Virginia; Prof J. A. Dewey, Wanamie, Pa.; Nelson Hald, Dannebrog, Neb.; Peyton J. Smith, Covington, Tenn.; E. E. Armstrong, Parry Sound, Can.; Dr. Armstrong, Olympia, Wash.; F. H. Johnston, Elizabeth City, N.C.; Will H. Mastin, Woodstock, Va.; W. J. Hutson, Rochester; Chas. W. Cooper, Allegheny; H. N. Clark, Adrian College; J. B. Weber, Buffalo; F. S. Ferguson, Birmingham, Ala.; J. K. Proudfit, Kansas City, Kan.; "Eddux," Atlantic City; W. W. Smith, Lynchburg, Va.; G. F. Coomber, Kansas City, Mo.; E. B. Escott, Grand Rapids, Mich.; F. B. Osgood, North Conway, N.H.; the Revs. Gilbert Dobbs, Brownsville, Tenn., and I. W. Bieber, Bethlehem, Pa.; W. E. Randall, Riverside Cal.

No. 106.

We are sorry that so few of our solvers took any interest in this very instructive study, and only one, "M. W. H.," was successful with it.

White, having the move, can not do more than "draw."

Black, having the move, wins in the following ingenious way:

Black.	White.
1. Q-R 4 ch	K-K 4 (a)
2. Q-R 8 ch	K-Q 3 (b)
3. Q-R 2 ch	Kt-Kt 6 (c)
4. Q x Kt ch	K-B 4
5. Kt-Q 7 ch	K-Q 5
6. Q-R 2 ch	K-B 6
7. Q-Kt 2 ch	K-Q 6
8. Q-Q 2 ch	

And Black wins the Queen in two moves.

(a) If K-Kt 2, a. Q-R 7 ch, K-B 3; 3. Q-R 8 ch, K-K 2; 4. Q-K 5 ch, and wins by Kt-K 6 ch, and Q-R 8 ch.

(b) Obviously any other move loses the Queen by Kt ch., or Q x Kt ch., or Q-K 5 ch.

(c) By this sacrifice, the demise is averted a few moves.

All our solvers should try 109. It will repay all the study you put on it. As it is so complicated, credit will not be given unless you send full solution. The key-move is not enough; because it does not prove that, altho you might get the first move, you can solve the problem.

W. G. Donnan, Independence, Ia., got No. 102, and writes: "But oh! ain't it a dandy!"

The St. Petersburg Tourney.

PILLSBURY AND LASKER EVEN.

The record at the time of going to press:

PLAYERS.	Lasker	Pillsbury	Steinitz	Tschigorin	W.O.
Emanuel Lasker.....	...	1 1/2	2 1/2	2 1/2	6 1/2
H. N. Pillsbury.....	2 1/2	...	1	3	6 1/2
William Steinitz.....	2	2	2	4 1/2	...
M. Tschigorin.....	2	0	1	...	1 1/2
Lost.....	3 1/2	3 1/2	4 1/2	7 1/2	19

An Asthma Cure at Last.

European physicians and medical journals report a positive cure for Asthma in the Kola Plant found on the Kongo River, West Africa. The Kola Importing Co., 1164 Broadway, New York, are sending free trial cases of the Kola Compound by mail to all sufferers from Asthma who send name and address on a postal card. A trial costs you nothing.

FIRST ROUND—FIRST GAME.

Petroff Defense.

LASKER. <i>White.</i>	PILLSBURY. <i>Black.</i>	LASKER. <i>White.</i>	PILLSBURY. <i>Black.</i>
1. P-K 4	P-K 4	19. Q x R	Kt x P (d)
2. K-Kt 4, B 3	K-Kt 4, B 3	20. K x Kt	P-B 5 (e)
3. Kt x P	P-Q 3	21. Q-Qsq (f) (Kt-K 4 ch)	
4. K-Kt 4, B 3	Kt x P	22. K-Q 2	Q-Kt 5 ch
5. P-Q 4	P-Q 4	23. K-Q 2	Q x Q ch
6. B-Q 3	B-K 2	24. K x Q	Kt x B (g)
7. Castle	Q-Kt 3	25. K-K 2	Kt-K 4
8. R-K sq	B-K Kt 5	26. P-B 3	R-K sq
9. P-B 3	P-B 4	27. P-Kt 3	Kt-Kt 5 ch
10. Q-Kt 3	Castles (a)	28. K-Q 2	Kt-K 6
11. B-K B 4	B x Kt	29. B-Kt 2	Kt-Kt 7 (h)
12. P x B	Kt-Kt 4	30. P-K R 3	B-B 4
13. K-Kt 2	Q-Q 2	31. Kt-R 2	B-B 7
14. Q-B 2 (b)	B-K 3	32. P-B 4	P x P 7
15. B-Q B sq	B-Q 3	33. P x P	P-K R 4
16. Kt-Q 2	Q-R 2	34. Resigns (l)	(t h. 25 m.) (t h. 50 m.)
17. Kt-B sq	Kt(K 3) x P (c)		R x R
18. Q-Q sq			

(Notes from the London Daily News.)

(a) An unorthodox move, which gives at once rich promise of interesting complications. We do not know what Pillsbury's reply would have been if White on his next move had taken the Q Kt P, but Q-Q 3 is a likely move, as then B x Kt would follow with strong attack, in which even a sacrifice by Kt x K B P may be possible.

(b) The retreat of the Q is a confession of failure of the move of Q-Kt 3. Taking the Q Kt P was rightly deemed by White to involve too much loss of time.

(c) White's game was much overclouded, and whenever there are clouds lightning moves such as the present may be looked for. The keen edge and inciseness of Black's play, especially considering the occasion, is noteworthy, and will, no doubt, receive great admiration. The soundness of the move is self-evident.

(d) Another rich move. Comment is superfluous. The sequel shows its soundness.

(e) This temporizing move makes the sacrifice effective, and it forms part of a deep combination.

(f) It would have been useless to attempt 21. K-Kt 2, P-B 6 ch. 22. Kt-Kt, Q-R 6, wins.

(g) Black having recovered his piece remains with two Pawns ahead; but the manner in which he speedily brings about the utter helplessness of his formidable opponent is almost as admirable in its way as the fine attack in the first part of the game.

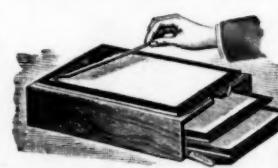
(h) Black's object is to prevent the white Rook and pieces coming into play.

(i) Altho White has struggled on longer, yet his position was so utterly hopeless that he lost nothing by giving up the attempt.

The New York Evening Post says: "Lasker conducted the game in so aimless and shifting a fashion that nobody would recognize the master who has hitherto been a model of precision. One would rather think it was played by Steinitz at his worst. Mr. Pillsbury, on the other hand, played in faultless style, and the sacrifice of the Knight on the nineteenth move was as fine a bit of Chess as was ever seen."

Pillsbury is the first favorite in St. Petersburg, and very large sums have been wagered that he will win first prize.

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Chess-Nuts.

Reichelm, in the Philadelphia *Times*, says: "Every Chess-player in America received a handsome Christmas present on learning that Pillsbury had, for the second time, beaten Lasker."

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The final games were played on New Year's Day. Ryder, of Harvard, won from Murdoch, of Yale, and Southard, of Harvard, made a "draw" with Arnstein, of Yale. This made the score: Harvard, 8½ wins; Columbia, 8; Princeton, 4; Yale 3½. Ross, of Columbia, did not lose a game; he won 5, and had two draws.

The following table shows the record of the tournament.

PLAYERS.	COLUMBIA.	HARVARD.	YALE.	PRINCETON.	Total Won.....
Price.....					
Ross.....					
Ryder.....	1	½			
Southard....	1	½			
Arnstein....	0	0	0	½	
Murdoch....	0	0	0	½	
Elmer.....	0	0	0	0	0
Seymour....	1	0	1	½	4
Total lost...	3	1	1½	2	4½
					4
					24

Current Events.

Monday, December 30.

The Senate reorganizes its standing committees by a vote of 30 Republicans to 28 Democrats. . . . Senator Lodge spoke on the "Monroe" doctrine. . . . The gold reserve stands at \$63,195,151. . . . Clara Barton, of the Red Cross society, addressed an Armenian relief-meeting in the City Hall, Boston. . . . A blizzard prevails east of the Mississippi. . . . The New York Supreme Court reverses the conviction of Police Captain Stephenson for accepting a bribe as brought out by the Lexow Committee's investigations and granted a new trial.

A despatch from New York to *The Times* revives excitement in London over the Venezuelan disputes. . . . Cuban insurgents are said to be retreating before Spanish troops. . . . The Haitian Government suppresses an uprising. . . . Russia is said to be massing troops on the Korean frontier. . . . The Transvaal Government, South Africa, takes measures to suppress expected rebellion.

Tuesday, December 31.

Senator Sherman introduces a resolution for the maintenance of the gold reserve. . . . Senator Chandler speaks for an investigation of contracts for armor-plates and ordnance material by Bureau of Ordnance of the Navy. . . . J. Pierpont Morgan organizes a syndicate to sell \$200,000,000 to the Government for bonds. . . . The Atlanta Exposition closes.

Alfred Austin is appointed poet-laureate by Queen Victoria. . . . An armed force of 800 men led by Dr. Jameson of the South Africa Company is reported marching toward Johannesburg in the Transvaal. . . . Gomez and Maceo are said to have been defeated at Calimete, in Matanzas, Cuba.

Wednesday, January 1.

President Cleveland announces the members of the Venezuelan Boundary Commission. . . . Governor Levi P. Morton of New York announces his candidacy for the Republican nomination for President. . . . New York and Maryland legislatures are in session. . . . The Santa Fé railway system is transferred by receivers to the new organization.

It is reported in London that Dr. Jameson and his followers have reached Johannesburg; the British Colonial Secretary ordered a recall of the expedition. . . . The London *Chronicle* learns that

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Earl Granville in 1885 virtually concluded with President Blanco a treaty providing for arbitration of the Venezuelan dispute, but that Salisbury on coming into power canceled this clause. . . . Foreign representatives at Constantinople are making another effort to induce the Sultan to accept mediation.

Thursday, January 2.

The New York Chamber of Commerce favors arbitration and a joint commission to settle the Venezuelan dispute. . . . Governor Greenhalge is inaugurated for a new term in Massachusetts. . . . Silver men control the Senate finance Committee and propose to offer a free-silver substitute for the Dingley bond bill. . . . A building collapses in St. Louis, after a series of explosions, causing the death of about 20 persons, and injuring many. The Treasury statement for December shows a surplus for the month of \$474,620, the deficit for the first six months for the fiscal year is \$15,373,700.

The capture of Dr. Jameson at Johannesburg after a short fight is reported. . . . The London *Chronicle* admits that according to the Anglo-Venezuelan correspondence of 1840-42 the Schomburgk line is proved worthless as a basis of territorial claim.

Friday, January 3.

The Senate debates Mr. Elkins's resolution providing that bonds hereafter shall be sold only by public competition. . . . Senator Sherman denounces the Administration's financial policy. . . . Mr. Boatner offered a resolution in the House looking to the impeachment of Controller Bowler for refusing payments of sugar bounty. . . . A Treasury statement gives the circulation of currency per capita as \$22.36.

It is reported that Dr. Jameson was executed by the Boers; the Kaiser congratulates President Krüger on defeating invaders. . . . A despatch from Constantinople says that the Porte will permit Americans to distribute relief to Armenians in Harput. . . . General Campos declares martial law in Western Cuba; the insurgents are said to be only 45 miles from Havana.

Saturday, January 4.

Justice Brewer is chosen president of the Venezuelan Boundary Commission. . . . The President issued a proclamation admitting Utah to Statehood. . . . An American naval demonstration in the Bosphorus to sustain the demand for indemnity from the Turkish Government is talked of in Washington.

The Kaiser's message to President Krüger of the Transvaal creates a sensation in Europe. Two massacres are reported from Asia Minor, nearly 3,000 people being killed by the Kurds.

Sunday, January 5.

Secretary Carlisle announces that sealed proposals for \$100,000,000 in 4-per-cent. bonds would be received at the Treasury department. . . . Francis Satolli, papal legate to the United States, is elevated to the Cardinalate at Baltimore. . . . John McGough, a "pal" of "Bat" Shea, confessed in prison that he killed Robert Ross, and Governor Morton resented Shea for a month.

President Krüger, of the South African Republic, replies to the Kaiser's message and telegraphs the British Colonial Secretary that he has not ordered Dr. Jameson and other prisoners shot. . . . The report that seven members of the Dominion cabinet have resigned is confirmed. . . . King Menelik of Abyssinia and 30,000 followers attempt to cut off General Baratieri from Massowah.

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